The Nation.

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The Week.

The action taken by the conference of sound-money Democrats at Chicago on Thursday last puts a new face on the campaign by introducing a fresh element into it. By calling a convention to put another Democratic ticket in the field, they have insured the permanence of the defection against Bryan, free silver, and repudiation which was disclosed at the Chicago convention and has been growing ever since. There has been a widespread belief that a third ticket would draw votes away from the Republican ticket, and thus contribute to the success of the Populistic-Democratic combination. We believe that the best interests of the country now require the election of McKinley and Hobart. We could not commend or advise any policy which, in our judgment, would not promote that end. If we believed that a third ticket would take from McKinley and Hobart one vote more than it would draw from Bryan and Sewall, we should certainly advise against it. Experience and observation of the drift and tendencies of the American voter, and some special knowledge of the issues of the present campaign, convince us that nearly all the Democrats who thoroughly understand those issues, and who have refrained up to this time from endorsing the nomination of Bryan, will vote for McKinley, no matter how many other tickets may be put up. We are equally convinced that these are not more than one in ten of the Democrats in the country at large, and that the other nine will gravitate to their own party, or be "whipped in" before election day, unless special pains are taken to hold them back. The question before us, therefore, is one of means to an end—the end being to keep votes away from Bryan which he would naturally get.

The Populist convention violated all precedents in nominating a candidate for Vice-President before making its choice for the first place on the ticket, and it was only proper that it should be equally reckless in picking out the man who represents the real feelings and desires of the party. Thomas E. Watson is a typical Southern Populist. Elected to Congress in 1890 nominally as a Democrat, he soon became as bitter against that party as the other, and, before the end of his first year, ceased to call himself a Democrat, running unsuccessfully for reëlection in 1892 as the candidate of the People's party. During his brief service at Washington he became notorious as a demagogue, who disgusted all sensible people by his wild ideas and abusive language. His easy nomination for the Vice-Presidency on the first ballot will show the people of the United States what a reckless and dangerous party the Populist is.

Mr. Bryan's dash and decision are oozing away painfully. Whether to accept or to refuse the Populist nomination, with its onerous conditions, he cannot make up his mind; so he puts out a bulletin deprecating "harsh criticism," and declaring that he "will act with deliberation." But the trouble is that he has already acted, with or without deliberation, in a way to make an honorable retreat impossible. His action was taken on July 24, when he telegraphed Chairman Jones: "I agree with you fully. If Sewall is not nominated, have my name withdrawn." What is there left for him to deliberate about? If he was honest then in withdrawing, he cannot be honest now in accepting. The truth is, that a most frightful dilemma is now thrust upon the young man who so gayly set out to run for the Presidency. To take this Populist nomination will be disastrous, and to refuse it will be disastrous; the only question being which will be the more so. In such a case deliberation only makes matters worse, as it notifies the public that the candidate is engaged in a choice of evils. Deliberation is confession. Did ever a nominee hesitate before about accepting 1,000,000 votes offered him? And we wonder how the Populists will like being deliberated over by Mr. Bryan. We should be glad to get "Cyclone" Davis's unforced opinions on this subject.

The platform adopted by the Populists is in many respects an improvement on that of the gathering at Chicago. The latter was vague; the former is explicit. Both agree that the principles of the founders of the republic must be maintained, that our independence is in peril because of the money power, and that this country is big enough to have a standard of value of its own without regard to the rest of the world. Both demand the free coinage of silver at the ratio of 16 to 1. Both condemn the sale of bonds for gold. Both denounce banks; the Chicago platform apparently limiting its complaint to national banks, but declaring at the same time that all paper money must be issued by the Government. Both favor an income-tax; the Chicago platform calling for one that shall cause wealth to bear its due proportion of the expenses of the Government, the Populist platform demanding in terms a graduated tax. Both decry the Supreme Court. Both repudiate "government by injunction." Both demand legislation prohibiting gold contracts. Both declare that the Government shall exercise its option of paying its obligations in silver. Both "sympathize with Cuba," and want the Territories admitted as States. Both reject all terms offered in settlement of the debts of the Pacific railroads.

Practically the only differences between the platforms are to be found in the planks concerning railroads and concerning the issue of money. The Chicago platform wants the control of Government over the railroads enlarged indefinitely; the Populists declare frankly for Government ownership of railroads and telegraphs. The Chicago platform proposes that Government notes shall be redeemable in coin, meaning thereby silver coin; the Populists content themselves with favoring the issue of money by the Government without saying anything about its redemption. This money is to be "safe and sound," and there is to be "a just, equitable, and efficient means of distribution direct to the people and through the lawful disbursements of the Government." We fear that this plank will not satisfy the rank and file of the Populists. In 1892 their platform called for a distribution of money "direct to the people at a tax not to exceed 2 per cent. per annum," according to the sub-treasury plan of the Farmers' Alliance. If there is nothing to hope for except a distribution through the lawful disbursements of the Government, how are the people to get hold of the money? That means nothing but the continuance of the present system, and in that case the Chicago platform is practically identical with that of the Populists. Had it been adopted last, it would read like a timid copy; as it is, the Populists have improved on the Chicago precedent.

Mr. George Fred Williams is furious because the Democrats of Massachusetts are not willing to admit that all their convictions have been erroneous, that their understanding of the principles maintained by Jefferson and Jackson has been incorrect, that whatever they have regarded as honorable is wrong, and that they must openly proclaim their adhesion to and support of views which they have always detested and always will detest. The quite natural reluctance to make such shameful admissions Mr. Williams describes as a "desperate effort to injure the cause of the national Democracy in the coming campaign." To counteract these desperate efforts Mr. Williams pleasantly invites every citizen of Massachusetts to join in forming a State organization which shall support the Chicago platform. The invitation is not a particularly attractive one. As we understand

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Mr. Williams's theory of political morality, it makes no difference whatever to the members of a party whether the policy of the party is changed or not. If the Republican platform had declared for the reënslavement of the negroes, according to Mr. Williams all who had called themselves Republicans must support that measure. Possibly Mr. Williams would say that the Chicago platform expresses the principles hitherto supported by the Democratic party. He is welcome to that opinion; but he cannot deny that other people have a right to hold opinions of directly opposite character.

The sound-money men in both parties are becoming thoroughly aroused to the importance of securing a House of Representatives which can be depended upon in the next Congress. The thing to do is to unite the votes of those Republicans and those Democrats who oppose the silver craze in such a way that a majority of Representatives may be secured who will oppose either free coinage or any compromise with silver. In a normally Democratic district a gold-standard Democrat should be supported by gold-standard Republicans, rather than run a sound-money Republican and take any risk of a silver man slipping in between the two. In strongly Republican districts the sound-money Democrats should reciprocate. Where neither the Republican nor the Democrat is sound, the gold-standard men should run a candidate of their own. In the Detroit (Mich.) district the candidate of the Republican party is to be a man who cannot be trusted to stand up for honest money against any pressure, while it seems more than probable that a strong effort will be made to oppose him with a Democratic candidate who can be trusted just as little. If this cannot be prevented, the *Free Press* (bolting Democratic) holds that "an effort should be initiated to secure the nomination of a candidate for whom the friends of honest money can cast their votes with some degree of confidence."

As Mr. Depew remarks, the policy of frightening English capital away from this country has the effect of stimulating industry in England. It produces such an abundant supply of loanable funds there as to make the rate of interest extremely low. This means that enterprises which would be unprofitable if capital had to be borrowed at a high rate of interest, become profitable. It means that employers are relieved of the necessity of reducing wages and are enabled to increase them. The general prosperity of the country has been evidenced in various ways, notably by the increase in the revenue of the Government. Additional evidence is now at hand in the report of the Board of Trade on the bankruptcies occurring during the year 1895. The number of cases decreased about 9 per cent. from 1894, and the estimated losses to creditors were but £8,328,000—a decrease of £1,367,000. The liabilities of the bankrupts were also about 15 per cent. less; and, as compared with 1893, the losses of creditors have fallen 23 per cent. According to the report, the annual amount of trading insolvency is on the whole steadily diminishing, and during the last few years it has fallen to a lower level than at any time during the present generation. If this does not demonstrate the prosperity of trade, it at least shows that trade is conducted, so far as the system of credit is concerned, on sound principles. Our harassed bankers and business men may well turn their eyes with envy to a country where the standard of value is not in constant danger of subversion by the Government, and where people do not have to speculate on the chances of coming down to a silver basis.

Mr. McKinley's little speech on Saturday had rather more about the tariff in it than the political situation just now seems to call for. That non-partisan campaign in defence of the national credit upon which he says we are entering does not mean a tariff campaign. It is especially futile in him to assert that "everybody knows" that the next Congress, if Republican, will pass a tariff bill as one of its first acts. Everybody knows that the next Senate will do nothing of the kind, and there is no use in holding out false hopes to anybody. On the money question the Major was as emphatic as a practised dealer in generalities can be. He was pronounced against any measure that would debase the currency or destroy public confidence. He undoubtedly means that he is in favor of the single gold standard, but it would be just as well to say so in terms. He should know that the times call for incisive statements, and that phrases fitted to put an edge on public sentiment are the ones for him to seek. Nothing is to be gained by being mealy-mouthed or trying any longer to butter the silver parsnips with fine words.

The announcement by the Atlanta (Ga.) *Journal* that it will support Bryan, despite its opposition to the free-coinage principle, should not surprise the public. The Mobile (Ala.) *Register*, which at first repudiated the Chicago ticket, has recanted, and the Savannah (Ga.) *News*, which left its attitude somewhat in doubt, announces that it will support the regular ticket. In Florida the Jacksonville *Citizen*, which has always been a sound-money journal, has accepted the result at Chicago, and other Democratic newspapers in that State, which have also opposed free coinage, take the same position. The independent voter is as yet not developed in most of the States in the Farther South, and a Democratic newspaper which should advise readers to help the election of a Republican President would be in danger of losing readers. The race question also enters into the matter, as the Democrat who votes the McKinley ticket in one of those States must cast his ballot for "niggers" as Presidential electors. Further north the conditions are different, notably in Kentucky, where the race issue is less acute and where the Republican party locally is more respectable. In such border States Democratic newspapers not only can bolt, but find a large proportion of their readers glad to keep them company in so doing.

The silver organs in the Southwest are making much of a statement, which is credited to Mr. Perry Belmont, that the Bank of France maintains the parity of gold and silver in that country by paying out both metals indiscriminately and at its own option. From this it is argued by the silver organs that we could do the same if the Treasury would exercise the same option. The fact is, that parity between the silver five-franc pieces and the gold coins has been maintained by stopping the coinage of silver and restricting the amount of five-franc pieces to the quantity in circulation twenty years ago. This was an act of the Government, not of the Bank of France, which is a private institution owned and managed exclusively by the shareholders. It is true that the Bank does exercise an option in paying out silver or gold when its notes are presented for redemption. It makes a profit by doing so—that is, it swells its own dividends. If a million francs of gold is called for, and the Bank sees a chance to "turn an honest penny," it offers its customer half a million in gold and half a million in silver. The customer says, "No, I must have it all gold because I want to send it out of the country, and foreigners will not take silver." The Bank has made a calculation that it will cost the customer say 1-8 per cent. to sort gold out of the circulating medium of the country, and that it can therefore safely charge 1-10 per cent. premium on the gold which it pays out, which premium is a profit to itself. This is the whole mystery of the premium on gold in France. Of course, the Bank exercises a discretion in this matter. Sometimes it charges a premium and sometimes it does not. The operation has nothing whatever to do with maintaining the parity of the two metals. In fact, it produces the only disparity which exists there. If the Government of France should go in for the free coinage of silver, parity could not be maintained a single day. Mr. Perry Belmont knows all these things, and is a sound-money Democrat through and through. It is evident, therefore, that the silver organs in the Southwest have either misquoted him or misconceived his meaning.

The Republican conventions that are being held in States between the Missis

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sippi and the Rockies furnish little evidence that the free-coinage heresy has a hold upon the party in that section of the country. The convention in North Dakota was held last week, and it endorsed the St. Louis platform; an effort to tack a silver plank to the resolutions being easily defeated. In South Dakota, Senator Pettigrew used all his influence to prevent a similar endorsement, but he was overwhelmingly defeated. In Iowa the Congressmen and other politicians who seemed so doubtful at St. Louis whether their constituents would endure a declaration for the gold standard, found that the delegates to the State convention were impatient with their timidity, and were quite ready to "stand up to the rack." Indeed, there has been little evidence of revolt among Republicans in the central part of the Union, outside the States of Minnesota and Michigan, and in these two States the bolters from the St. Louis platform do not seem to be gaining ground as time passes.

The commission on the Greater New York charter have displayed great speed in preparing a draft of the first five chapters, and great good sense in giving it out, even in incomplete and tentative form, for public scrutiny. Whatever the plan evolved, its acceptance must depend on popular approval; and as that can be secured only by thorough discussion, and as the time is short, discussion cannot too soon be invited or begun. Of the general outline submitted, it is to be said that the centralizing of power and responsibility in the Mayor is in keeping with the prevailing opinion among municipal reformers. The practical working of this plan in Brooklyn and Cleveland and other cities has revealed few operative objections to it, and it seems now destined to widespread trial in this country. How to secure an efficient legislative body to go with this strong executive, and an interested and honest local control of local affairs, is the great problem. The commission propose to solve it by the adoption of a borough system, the greater city to be provided with nine borough boards, each having its local jurisdiction and each electing representatives to the central legislative body. In the details of this adjustment of local to central government will come the rub. Whatever may be found to be the difficulties or practicability of this part of the plan, the commission are certainly to be praised for the direct way in which they declare for ample powers in the Mayor's hands and for single-headed departments.

In the course of President Walker's address in London before the Bimetallic League, he fairly got on his knees to that city, begging it to give the world international bimetallism. He said: "Of all the vast expanse of the globe, one square mile alone blocks the way to the adoption of a world's money as wide as the world's trade." Athanasius against the world was nothing to this; his patriarchate covered much more than one square mile. The orators lately in action at St. Louis are, in fact, the only ones able to equal this flight of Prof. Walker's. It is a common Populist conception that four men meet in a back room in London, not larger than 200 square feet, and mark up the price of the dollar and the rate of interest as the fancy strikes them. "Cyclone" Davis would agree in general with the head of the Boston School of Technology, that three or four Jews in London were keeping the rest of the world from having their own way, but the Texan remedy is not to beg but to break heads. That, we fully believe, is the only way of making that one square mile in London "let up" on the rest of the globe. President Walker's method will only make it more conscious of power and unscrupulous in the use of it. In this connection, it is interesting to learn from President Walker's 'International Bimetallism,' just published, how that beautiful world's money as wide as the world's trade is to be established. It is not to be through international conferences. President Walker is as sick of them as Bryan himself, and with as good reason. There is such an unpleasant publicity about them, so much speechmaking and explaining to do, and now such an inevitable air of solemn farce. No, conferences are to be thrown over, and international bimetallism brought about, how? "Through diplomatic negotiations *quietly conducted*, without speechmaking or ceremony, between the four nations, France, England, Germany, and the United States." In other words, four monarchs are to get together in the good old secret way and agree to debase the coinage, letting the people and the press know nothing about it until it is an accomplished fact. But if international bimetallism can come only without observation, its arrival is even further off than we had supposed.

Even in "bimetallic France" people are occasionally reminded that silver coin has, after all, rather a factitious than an intrinsic value. The Paris correspondent of the London *Economist* writes that dissatisfaction and inconvenience have been caused by a proclamation of the Ministry of Finance calling attention to the fact that silver coins of dates previous to 1866 for pieces of one and two francs, and smaller pieces older than 1864, are not current. Such coins have hitherto been in circulation and have never been withdrawn by the Government when received at the post-offices and other public departments. The Ministry of Finance is now obliging enough to offer to purchase these coins at 53 per cent. of their face value, in order, as it ironically observes, to facilitate the elimination of such coins from circulation. The silver coins current in France are as varied in character as our paper money. The silver coins of Belgium and Switzerland and Italy are worth their face value if they have the right year stamped on them; otherwise they are not a legal tender. In the case of Swiss coins, if the female figure on them is erect, they are good; if seated, they are bad. There is a good deal of "fiat" in the value of such coins, while gold appears to maintain a perverse independence of all legislative assertions of its value.

Sir William Harcourt's question about the Venezuela controversy in the House of Commons last week made it clear again that Lord Salisbury has not kept abreast of English public opinion in pushing for arbitration. He has accelerated his pace of late, it is true, and now admits that time should not be lost, and that the present situation should be utilized for the purpose of securing a permanent solution for similar difficulties. But there is no doubt that the English people and a good part of his parliamentary supporters have been vastly impatient at the way he has let the affair drag along. He made public the recent correspondence on the express ground that it would be an advantage to test public opinion. The cheers that greeted Sir William Harcourt's pressure for dispatch in the business give a test of parliamentary opinion at any rate. Secretary Olney has been readier to go on than Lord Salisbury, but he, as well as the British Premier, shrinks from going the full length of arbitration, and proposes to reserve a class of difficulties that cannot be arbitrated. In other words, both negotiators abandon the principle of the duello in some cases, considering it an obsolete and monstrous principle, but in others propose to apply it as rigorously and wickedly as ever.

There is reason to think that the disturbances in Macedonia are of a more serious character than has been supposed. The German and Austrian papers are full of reports of an extremely disquieting character; and when we consider the outbreak in Crete and the situation in Armenia, it is hard to resist the conclusion that the dissolution of the Turkish empire may come sooner than it was looked for. Its collapse can hardly occur without a general convulsion, but the framework of the ancient despotism has become so rotten that it seems doubtful if the European Powers united can hold it up much longer. It is by no means improbable, as is sincerely believed by some of the American missionaries, that Russian influence is at work to stimulate disorder. Now that Russia has brought Bulgaria to terms, her hands are comparatively free, and when Turkey finally breaks up, Russia at least will be no loser.

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A REAL BUSINESS CAMPAIGN.

We have had feigned or fraudulent "Business Men's campaigns" in this country, but this time it is the genuine article. The business interests of the country are for the first time almost absolutely solidified on one side in a Presidential election. Hitherto it has been possible for one party to offset the other's great "Dry-Goods Parade" with an imposing "Manufacturers' Demonstration" or "Solid Men in Line" of its own. Free silver astride the Democratic party has changed all that. In the contest between party and bread-and-butter, party goes down every time. The business world has now a common consciousness created in it by the bold threat of the Chicago platform and candidates against its very life, and the most powerful impulse in that consciousness is the instinctive one of self-defence. Every active business man becomes of necessity a political agent from this time on. It is not a matter of artificial and perfunctory parades and processions, but of a spontaneous, a continuous, an overwhelming fight with the forces of civil disorder and business disaster.

The bankers and brokers of this city have just furnished a most striking proof of the way the business interests of the country are bound together, and are necessarily bound together, against every assault on the national credit. They have combined their powerful forces not only to replenish the Government's gold reserve, but to protect it against further depletion. They are, in other words, proposing to do now voluntarily what the syndicate obligated itself to do last year. Then it was, according to the Populists, only a question of blood-sucking and wicked profits wrung from the people. What they will say to this similar step, without any Government contract or any profits, we do not know; but it is safe to predict that it will throw them into a fresh fine frenzy.

We do not suppose for a moment that this combined action to protect the national credit is regarded by its promoters as a piece of disinterested patriotism. It is a business move, and there are the best of business reasons for it. Bankers are first of all business men, and would have no right to use the funds in their charge for patriotic purposes, merely as such. But there are cases when good patriotism is also good business, and this is one of them. If confidence can be maintained, or if at least an impending panic can be averted, the business basis for the action taken is clearly established.

We believe, furthermore, looking at the matter narrowly, that the project to check gold exports and supply needed sterling exchange for ninety days has a reasonable business basis in existing conditions. Those closest in touch with the international situation are confident of large foreign buying of our cotton and wheat. It is noticeable that one firm in particular, which last year would not go into the combination to protect sterling exchange, because it did not believe the export situation warranted it, is now acting with the others. The operation thus promises to be successful, purely as a business stroke. But even if it is not, even if the work should turn out to have been done at a loss, it would be a wise and defensible business move nevertheless. The general gains resulting from improved confidence would more than make up for incidental losses. Every vast business interest is intimately related to public confidence and the national credit, and any action taken by it to build up that confidence and sustain that credit is legitimate business.

This is the great significance of the spontaneous arrangements making by New York business men to protect the gold reserve. It shows that the great commercial and industrial forces of the country are wrapped up in the preservation of a stable currency. It shows how inevitably they come together and unite their tremendous powers in defence of the national finances. They are bound to do it. It is not patriotism merely, it is horse-sense. Individual bankers, isolated millionaires, could of course protect themselves in a general smash; but the vast business fabric of the country would fall in irretrievable ruin. To prevent that is the beginning of business wisdom. That was really the underlying motive with many subscribers to the Government bond sales. They did not particularly want the bonds. The enormous profits, as a little figuring would show, were all in the Populist's eye. But a general business disaster must be staved off at all hazards. It was an argument, in fact, of one of the promoters of the syndicate loan, that bankers must come in and take a share, "or else we shall all go to the devil together."

Politically, the effect of American business men being aroused and embattled as never before cannot fail to be enormous. What we see here in New York on a large scale is going on proportionately all over the country. The business instinct is one and the same thing wherever you find it. Because a manufacturer or trader lives in Alabama or Texas, there is nothing in the climate to make him imagine that cutting the dollar in two will be anything but disastrous to those who produce as well as those who buy and sell. As a matter of fact, Southern and Western business men who come to New York by the hundred say that they and their kind think about the situation just as we do, and are going to vote the same way, too. This will appear more and more evident as the campaign goes on. The solidification of business men against the party of repudiation and riot will be, we believe, by October, so complete and overpowering that all doubt about the result will be over long before election day comes.

THE PLIGHT OF THE WESTERN FARMER.

The *Evening Post* publishes a letter from a correspondent who appears to have a personal acquaintance with the condition of the farmers in several of the Western States. He declares that an appalling change has come over their circumstances during the last ten years. He asserts that there is no mystery about the cause of this, which is, in brief, the fact that farmers get for their products prices that will average scarcely one-half what they received ten years ago. Hence farmers by the thousands have lost their farms, and tens of thousands are struggling to avert foreclosure, and the writer thinks that allowance should be made if such distress as this has bred a tendency to fanaticism. Certainly the condition of men who have borrowed moderate sums of money to use in legitimate and safe business enterprises, who have been disappointed in the outcome of these enterprises, and who have heroically struggled to prevent the lenders of this money from being deprived of their property, must command general sympathy. We know of no community where such men are not respected, or where their creditors are not willing and anxious to assist them in every possible way to retrieve their losses. Nor do we doubt that in the Western States many such sufferers are to be found. For a number of reasons, however, their number appears to be exaggerated.

In the first place, such evidence as we have, although it is of an imperfect nature, shows that probably the majority of farmers own their farms "free and clear." To all such men the course of general prices is really a matter of comparative indifference. Granted, which we do not grant, that the Western farmer sells his products for half the price of ten years ago, what difference does it make to him, when free from debt, provided the prices of everything that he buys have fallen in like proportion? And if they have not fallen in like proportion, then it conclusively appears that the demonetization of silver has nothing to do with the case, for that must affect all prices if any. We are unable to see that the Western farmer who is free from debt has any excuse whatever for either financial dishonesty or fanaticism. In the second place, the circumstances under which large parts of Kansas, Nebraska, the Dakotas, and Colorado were settled are notorious. It was very well known that the rainfall was uncertain in those regions, and they had been marked on the map as parts of the great American desert. Nevertheless, there were railroads that had land grants in those parts, there were State immigration agencies, there were farm-loan companies, and there were women and clergymen and teachers and even trustees and savings-bank officers in the East who were ready to lend money on the security of lands which they had never seen and

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which they generally could not have found on the map if they had looked for them—to lend it, too, to borrowers whom they did not know and who were in many cases entirely impecunious.

Nothing else could well have happened under such conditions than what did happen. There were plenty of immigrants who were willing to buy land of the railroad companies if they could borrow the money to pay for it, and to take their chances of getting a crop. The money-lenders in many instances were dishonest, and frequently persuaded the borrower to take more money than he really needed, charging him enormous commissions, which were of course paid out of the money of the Eastern investor. Perhaps these money-lenders believed that, as had often taken place in the past, there would be such a rise in the value of farm lands as to bring everything out right. Probably the borrowers generally had this belief, although in many cases they were easily persuaded to drop enterprises in which they had never invested a dollar of their own capital, and to abandon "farms" which they had bought for less money than they had mortgaged them for.

However this may have been, it is evident that the whole business was speculative. Even the Eastern investor was a speculator to a certain extent, for he was tempted by higher interest to accept security without proper scrutiny; and we may say here parenthetically that the sufferings of this class deserve some consideration even from the silver men. But the latter was even more a speculator. He was borrowing money with which to embark on a perilous enterprise. He knew at the start that unless "rain followed the plough," he could not count on a crop in the arid belt more than one year in three. But he took the chances. He knew that time and again men had taken up land and paid for it with the proceeds of a single crop, and he had faith that open furrows would tempt showers out of a clear sky.

We need not examine the many causes that coöperated to bring this speculation to ruin. Their enterprises were not legitimate business enterprises, the amounts that they borrowed were frequently such as no one who wished to protect his creditors from possible loss would borrow, and their conduct when they found that their enterprises were failures was frequently disgraceful. We are well aware that human nature is weak, and that debtors are easily persuaded to do things the morality of which they would question if they were not embarrassed. We are ready to "make allowance" in the sense of admitting that distress occasions fanaticism and dishonesty; but we are not ready to admit that it justifies dishonesty. No matter what the sufferings of the Western farmer, his condition shall not bring us to consent to the financial dishonor of the nation, to the cheating of creditors, to the robbery of the poor. Should the Western farmers overwhelm us with their votes, we shall submit only as the opponents of human slavery submitted when they were outvoted by the South, confident that in this country honesty and integrity shall at last rule.

ON THE BARGAIN COUNTER.

THE *Journal* of this city makes some suggestions that are well adapted to cause sober reflection among the readers of that paper. Why, it asks, should millionaire holders of American securities fear a panic through the unloading by English holders of American securities? Would not this great unloading place the purchasing power in their own hands? Would they not have an unparalleled opportunity to invest—"to secure some very good property at a bargain"?

These observations appear to us to indicate a very correct estimate of the gains that would be made by the possessors of great wealth if the American people should declare in favor of the free coinage of silver. That there would be a terrible panic does not admit of a doubt. If such transactions in securities as we now see take place under the influence of vague apprehension, the situation would be far worse when the certainty of disaster was established. If these things are done in a green tree, what will be done in a dry? We may safely assume, therefore, that the election of Mr. Bryan will be the signal for a great "unloading"; that is, for the forced sale of large amounts of securities for whatever they will bring.

These sales, as the *Journal* intimates, will be made not *by* the plutocrats, but *to* the plutocrats. They will be made not by those who will have enough to live on in times of distress, but by those who will not have enough to live on. They will be made not by the rich, but by those in moderate circumstances, who will feel that they must at any cost have something on hand with which to meet their ordinary expenses—with which to pay their rent, and to buy food and clothing and fuel for their children. They will be made by the officers of savings banks in order to raise funds wherewith to pay their frightened depositors. They will be made by directors of banks for the account of merchants who have pledged securities as collateral for loans of money to be used in their business. They will be made by hundreds of people in moderate circumstances (elderly people, school-teachers, single women), who will feel that, terrible as it is to have their savings reduced, it is better to make sure of something than to endure the strain of the possibility of losing all.

Such will be the sellers, and, as our millionaire journalist intimates, he and the other "plutocrats" will be the buyers. They can afford to forego dividends and interest for a year or two, provided they can purchase substantial properties at a fraction of their real value. It is by taking advantage of such conditions that many men have become millionaires, and it has generally been maintained that the existence of such conditions was deplorable, and by all means to be prevented, precisely because they give the very rich "opportunities to secure very good property at a bargain," at the expense of people of moderate wealth. It may be laid down as a maxim that "plutocrats" are in position to get the first news of whatever is likely to cause a fall in prices, and to take advantage of it. They are in the best position to judge when the decline has reached its limit, and, as we have seen, they have the means to use their advantage. They need not sell unless they choose, and they can buy when they choose. Other people have to sell when they do not want to, and cannot buy when they see that bargains are to be had.

Millionaires, therefore, as the *Journal* cheerfully assures them, need not worry about the silver craze. It will only give them another chance to carry out the principles which the Populists assert animate the rich. It is conceivable that some millionaires may have acted on these principles. They may have believed that the people were going to be humbugged by the owners of silver, and have converted their American securities into gold or British funds. They may be chuckling now over their astuteness, and gloating over the prospect of future wreck, when they will step in and "secure some very good property at a bargain." They may even reason that it is quite impossible for a commercial country like this to remain on a silver basis, and foresee an eventual return to gold, with further panic, ruin of debtors, foreclosure of mortgages, etc., as necessary consequences of financial dishonesty. Whatever happens, their withers will be unwrung.

But it is infinitely melancholy to see a great body of our fellow-citizens bent on forcing this opportunity on the "plutocrats." It is inconceivable that they have any hostility to the possessors of moderate wealth, for many of them belong to this class. Nor are they unaware that the "plutocrats" can take care of themselves, for they continually attribute to them almost superhuman craft and quite inhuman principle. Nevertheless, they seem determined to bring on a crisis which can result only in transferring property from the less wealthy to the "plutocrats." Does it not occur to them to inquire into the influences that have established the silver propaganda, and to ask whose interests will be immediately promoted by its success? Such questions may well be suggested by the friends of honest money to those who are confused by the claims of the silver advocates. If a period of disturbance in values is to result in gain to the poor and loss to the rich, it will be the first instance of the kind in the world's history.

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A FREE-COINAGE CATECHISM.

Q. What do the free-coinage leaders especially charge against the gold standard? A. They declare that it has helped the rich, and has caused distress and loss to everybody else.

Q. Is this statement true? A. It is not.

Q. Suppose the gold standard had worked injury to every one except the rich; how should we know the fact? A. People with small incomes would have been growing steadily poorer since the gold standard was adopted.

Q. Have such people been growing poorer? A. On the contrary, their prosperity, since this country returned to the gold standard in 1879, has increased in an unprecedented degree.

Q. What proof have you of this? A. The increase in savings-bank deposits.

Q. By whom are such deposits made? A. They consist almost entirely of the surplus income of tradesmen, wage-earners, and small producers.

Q. What are the figures of these deposits? A. In 1879 the total savings-bank deposits in the United States were $802,490,298; in 1895 they were $1,844,357,798; increase, $1,041,867,500, or 129 per cent.

Q. What is your authority for these figures? A. The official statements of the savings banks to the United States Government, published in the reports of the Comptroller of the Currency.

Q. What do the figures show? A. They show that during the seventeen years since this country's return to the single gold standard, the savings of its poorer people have been a thousand million dollars larger than they were in any preceding period.

Q. Are the savings-bank deposits our only proof that the people have prospered under the gold standard? A. The building and loan associations are another striking proof.

Q. Who are the depositors with building and loan associations? A. Chiefly wage-earners, tradesmen, and people with small salaries.

Q. What do the reports of these associations show? A. Twelve years ago the deposits with such associations were comparatively insignificant. In 1892 the returns of the United States Department of Labor showed the aggregate to be $500,000,000. To-day the total of these deposits in this country is estimated at $750,000,000.

Q. How do all these figures compare with savings-bank deposits and with building and loan association accounts in countries now on a silver standard? A. Such countries have neither savings banks nor building and loan associations, at least on any such scale as to furnish a basis for comparison.

Q. How do you explain so enormous an increase in the savings of our people? A. Wages have increased since the return to the gold standard. Great improvements and extension of production have lowered prices and reduced the cost of living. This has necessarily increased the people's savings.

Q. What is your authority for stating that wages have increased since our adoption of the gold standard? A. The highest known authority: the United States Senate report of 1892.

Q. How much does this report show average wages to have increased since the resumption of specie payments? A. Up to the latest date covered by the report, they had increased 20¾ per cent. In many industries the increase had been much larger.

Q. Then the average wage-earner's income has increased under the gold standard, while living expenses have decreased for everybody? A. Such are the facts.

Q. Would this advantage continue under free silver coinage? A. It could not. Wages would not increase spontaneously if at all, while prices for necessaries of life would rise rapidly.

Q. Do the free-coinage leaders admit this certain rise in prices? A. They do; they declare that all prices are now too low, and that free coinage will raise them.

Q. But do not these people claim that high prices for food, clothing, and household necessaries will cause general contentment and prosperity? A. They do.

Q. How can we be sure that they are not right? A. Read the record of years when currency inflation had caused high prices in this country. Look into the condition of other countries where prices now are high under a silver standard.

Q. When were prices and living expenses highest in this country? A. In 1865 and 1866.

Q. What did the American people of that time think of the high prices? A. They complained bitterly.

Q. Where can we find any record of such complaint? A. Go to a public library and read the newspapers of those years.

Q. Give some illustrations. A. In 1865 the New York papers seriously advised people to stop eating meat, in order to check the high prices. Letters from readers published in these papers complained that milk, butter, coal, and ice were almost beyond the poor man's reach. One letter, in the New York *Times* of June 29, 1865, deserves to be quoted. "All last winter," the writer says, "I could hardly afford to buy any meat. The little bits of beef and mutton that we poor people buy cost so much that my wife says it is like eating money." You can readily consult all these published letters.

Q. Would people object to high prices now as much as they did then? A. Every head of a family and every housekeeper is competent to answer this question.

Q. If prices advanced under free coinage, would not the employer of labor be able to pay very much higher wages? A. His own living expenses would increase as fast as his income, his business would be thrown into confusion, and all his profits would become a matter of speculation.

Q. Was this his experience when prices rose before 1865? A. It was emphatically his experience.

Q. But, surely, if the money supply increased, the wage-earner would get his share? A. He could get no more than his employer paid him.

Q. But might not his employer advance wages simply because the money supply had increased? A. We leave the answer to this question to the wage-earner himself.

ERNST CURTIUS.

Norwich, Conn., July 27, 1896.

I first met Ernst Curtius in June, 1871, at the Hôtel des Étrangers, Athens. He had just returned from Asia Minor, where, in company with Stark of Heidelberg, Adler of Berlin, and Major V. Regely of the German Engineer Corps, he had been superintending the excavations at Pergamos. I had the good fortune to be placed next him at table-d'hôte, and the circumstance that I spoke the modern Greek with some facility led to conversation between us in that language, and roused also Curtius's interest in me, one of the earliest Americans who made a prolonged residence in Greece to gain a knowledge of land, language, and people. This personal interest led to a subsequent intimate acquaintance in Berlin, where I was so favored as to be, for a year (1872-'73), a member of Curtius's household. Thus it comes about that I am qualified and justified in writing, shortly after Curtius's death, these reminiscences of one of the noblest natures that I have ever known. How well I recall the impression which Curtius made upon me at that first meeting! He was then fifty-seven years old, but bore hardly any visible marks of age. He was small of stature, but of beautiful physical development. His light step, his large, prominent eye, his dark-brown, wavy, abundant hair, his animated, rapid speech, his gay flow of spirits, all come back to my memory.

To few men did birthplace mean more than to Curtius. He was born September 2, 1814, in the stately historic town of Lübeck, capital city of the Hansa League, which in 1400 numbered eighty towns in its membership and controlled the commerce of the world. The carved front of many an old Lübeck house bears witness to the wealth which world-commerce brought into this city, and the Marien-Kirche is one of the largest and noblest churches in Europe. Its monuments, by their number and their variety, testify to the wealth and enterprise of the citizens of the good old town, and many an ancient gate and guild-hall speaks to the thoughtful visitor of the bustle and wealth of long ago. Curtius's father, Carl Curtius, was for a long period syndic of Lübeck, had studied law, possessed decided literary tastes, and had maintained a correspondence on subjects connected with the drama with the poet Schiller while the latter was professor of history at Jena. The name Curtius was formed by giving a Latin termination to the German name *Kurz*, "short." Ernst Curtius had two brothers, Theodore, the oldest of the family, who studied law and became burgomaster of Lübeck, and

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George, born in 1817, who attained great eminence as a comparative etymologist, and died, full of honors, in Leipzig, some ten years since.

Ernst Curtius received his early training at the gymnasium called the Katharinum, originally the Monastery of St. Catharine, and, with the reputation of a brilliant student, went, in 1834, to Bonn to study classical literature. He took with him from Classen, who had lately come to Lübeck, an introduction to Prof. Brandis of the University of Bonn. Classen had been, while Niebuhr was professor at Bonn, the historian's secretary and private tutor to his son. Brandis had been Niebuhr's secretary when he was German Minister at Rome. Brandis was in due time succeeded by Bunsen, whose brilliant subsequent career in England was opened to him at the German Embassy at Rome. All of these men, except Bunsen, were natives of Schleswig-Holstein; and attachment to their little native state, so wonderfully productive of great men, made them ready each to lend a helping hand to the other.

In 1835 Otho, a Bavarian Prince, the first King of Greece, attained his majority and took the reins of government. Great hopes were entertained of the future of the Greek kingdom, and in 1837 Brandis was selected as the Privy-Councillor of the King, who had barely completed his education. Brandis needed a teacher for his children, and he selected the talented, enthusiastic Ernst Curtius, whom he had been teaching for three years in his lecture-room at Bonn. At the same time, Emanuel Geibel, one of Germany's valued lyric poets, a schoolmate of Ernst Curtius at the Katharinum, accepted an appointment as private tutor to the children of the Russian Ambassador. What a romantic beginning of life was this for a gifted youth of twenty-three! The party, numbering eight or ten souls, started from Hamburg in an emigrant-wagon, and their journey was continued, in this same wagon, until it terminated in Ancona, on the east coast of Italy. Nearly three months were required, but what a fund of impression, of knowledge must have been gained. Doubtless Curtius's journal is still in existence. A companion to it is Goethe's journal of his tour to Italy. It is difficult for us to conceive of the transformations which have taken place in Europe since this journey was undertaken. Think of the formalities of passport, of the varieties of costume, of the multitude of independent States! The longest halt was made at Munich, where, from Brandis's relations to the Bavarian Prince, the party had a warm reception. Then the Alps were crossed, Lombardy and the Po Valley were passed, and a sailing-vessel was taken at Ancona. Curtius's family used to take special delight in hearing him relate the story of this journey.

The hopes of the Philhellenes in regard to Greece were hardly realized, in part because they had been unwarrantably high. Brandis, perhaps, felt in after years that he had sacrificed much in interrupting the quiet course of his fruitful labors at Bonn, but to Curtius the whole experience was full of the greatest advantage. Sensitive far beyond most men to natural scenery, with a quick and unerring eye for beauty in nature and art, he gained, in the most impressionable period of life, an intimate acquaintance with Greece which bore unceasing fruit to the very close. Who can measure the effects upon facilities and ideals in classical study, upon museums, upon the popularizing of Greek art, of Ernst Curtius's residence for two years in Athens? Two specially important journeys were undertaken by Curtius towards the close of his stay in Greece: one, with K. O. Müller, to Delphi; the other, with Karl Ritter, a protracted tour in the Peloponnesus. The first journey was saddened by the death of one of the most brilliant of German archæologists, who was prostrated by sunstroke while copying inscriptions at Delphi. Curtius brought back the remains of Müller to Athens, where they are now interred. The second journey, in the companionship of the father of modern geography, unquestionably laid the foundation for one of Curtius's most valuable works, 'The Peloponnesus,' which, though published in 1850, has not been superseded.

Curtius took his doctor's degree, in Bonn, in 1841, and was immediately appointed instructor in the Joachims-Thal Gymnasium in Berlin. The director of the gymnasium, who was Curtius's personal friend, soon requested Curtius to deliver one of the free popular lectures in the Royal Academy of Music (Sing-Akademie) which have for more than fifty years formed one of the winter attractions in Berlin. In the dense audience were Humboldt, Boeckh, and Ritter, and among the royal household was the Princess Augusta, wife of Prince William, and mother of the heir to the Prussian throne. Curtius chose as his subject the Acropolis of Athens. With that wonderful skill which he possessed he made his account of this famous rock nothing less than a living picture of Greek history, art, and religion. The audience was charmed, and the Princess is said to have remarked at the close of the address, "That is the man whom I must have to educate my son." In fact, three years later, in 1844, Curtius was appointed Educator of the Crown Prince, with the title of Professor Extraordinary in the University of Berlin. He devoted six years to this duty, having the general charge of all the historical, linguistic, and literary studies of Friedrich William. His relations with the royal family became familiar. In 1848-'49, when revolutionary feeling ran high in Berlin, the Prince of Prussia (afterwards, as Emperor William, the most popular sovereign in Europe) was so unpopular that it was thought necessary for him to leave Germany and reside in England. During this time Curtius lived in the intimate relations of common family life, in Potsdam, with the heir to the German throne and his mother, the Princess Augusta.

In 1850 Curtius accompanied his distinguished pupil to the University of Bonn, and in the same year his work on the Peloponnesus was published. This is not the place to attempt a bibliography of Curtius's works. Yet his address on Olympia in 1852, which is believed, owing to the personal interest which it excited in the Crown Prince, afterward the Emperor Frederick, to have been the cause of the German excavations of 1876-80, with all their wonderful results, should here be mentioned. In 1856 Curtius was appointed professor at Göttingen. He had already been induced to undertake the preparation of a History of Greece, and this history, his most extensive work, was completed in 1867. The English edition of this work is published in five volumes. Its capital merits are the intimate acquaintance of the author with the land he describes, his personal familiarity with the range of Greek literature, and his insight into Greek archæology and art. In 1869 Curtius was called to Berlin as professor in the University, and his life henceforth was to be identified with the German capital. The most important enterprises of this last period of his life were the excavations at Olympia, with which his name was peculiarly associated (in company, of course, with a large number of other scholars), and the establishment of the German School of Classical Studies in Athens, about 1872.

Any sketch of Curtius would be incomplete which should not mention the festival addresses, of which he delivered so many at Berlin. From the time of his appointment to the Berlin professorship, it devolved upon him to deliver, on the birthday of the Prussian King, the solemn address before the University. The subject of these birthday addresses was generally drawn from classical antiquity, but he would always make some application, pertinent and striking, to modern conditions and to modern needs. These addresses, delivered through almost thirty years in honor of three emperors, are a beautiful illustration of Curtius's patriotic feeling, of his versatility, of his exquisite literary talent.

In 1884 his admirers presented to him a noble bust of himself. Nearly a hundred Americans participated in this gift, the chairman of the American committee being the historian Bancroft. On Curtius's eightieth birthday a great demonstration in his honor was made at Olympia, where his bust, a copy of that of 1884, was crowned, and laudatory addresses were made by eminent scholars of all nationalities resident in Greece. The enthusiasm shown on this occasion is described as having been remarkable.

The nobleness of Curtius's personal character was something which altogether transcends description. Those who learned to know him recognize the peculiar inspiration which his nobleness has imparted to them, and are bound together by the tie of discipleship of him. Perhaps his influence has been peculiarly strong in America. A large number of the most eminent American classical scholars have been admitted to his hospitality and friendship, and count themselves as his fervent admirers. The interest felt in America in museums of casts, illustrative of Greek art, is largely due to the influence of Curtius. I am in doubt whether to attempt to characterize the home of Curtius as I knew it in Berlin. On the whole, I question whether a brighter family life could anywhere be found. Frau Curtius supplemented, in a wonderful degree, the gifts of her husband. Both delighted in the social life of the home, but Curtius would often lose himself in reverie, and find his own thoughts more interesting than the struggling speech of the foreign student or even the somewhat commonplace talk of the ordinary Berlin professor. Then Frau Curtius would come to the rescue, and, with a tact which must be seen to be appreciated, would discuss the subjects in which all were interested, and either set the company in animated conversation, or make, herself alone and unassisted, such speech as all would delightedly sit and listen to. Curtius leaves two children, Frederick, a man of brilliant literary endowments, who holds an important judicial position in Alsace, and a daughter, the wife of Richard Lepsius, professor in the Polytechnic School at Darmstadt. Prof. Lepsius is the son of the eminent Egyptologist.

Of the later years of Curtius's life it may be added that, with unabated industry, he toiled on until the end. Almost the only sign of physical failure was weakness of the eyes. He submitted to several operations for cataract, and, when his sight had grown so dim that he could work only very slowly and painfully, the use of his eyes was twice, to a considera-

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ble extent, restored to him. His physical elasticity and his mental powers suffered little impairment until within the last three months, when the disease to which he succumbed declared itself. ROBERT P. KEEP.

AMHERST ECLIPSE EXPEDITION—II.

YACHT CORONET,
YOKOHAMA HARBOR, July 3, 1896.

REMARKABLE disturbances of nature seem to accompany the Amherst Eclipse Expedition upon its travels. Tales of the mighty eruption of Mauna Loa, just ending, greeted us at the Hawaiian Islands. Upon the arrival of the *Coronet* in Japan on June 22, it was learned that an enormous tidal wave had recently devastated more than thirty towns and villages in the north, washing away over five thousand houses and destroying nearly thirty thousand persons. Detailed accounts of this appalling disaster are still hard to obtain, for the few survivors in the devastated districts are even now too dazed to give clear descriptions of the horror which befell them. But it is known that a seismic wave, rising to a height of almost sixty feet, swept across the land, carrying everything in its course with irresistible force. Along a coast line of 175 miles in one province alone the wave overwhelmed the seaboard of three districts—Miyagi, Iwate, and Aomori, extending from Hachinoye on the north to Kinkasan, an island at the mouth of the bay of Sendai, on the south. Several shocks of earthquake were felt during the few hours preceding, and shortly before eight o'clock in the evening of June 15 a terrifying noise was heard, like the boom of gigantic artillery, a black wall of water was seen advancing from the ocean with fearful speed, and in less than two minutes whole towns were swept away and thousands of human beings perished. Their Majesties the Emperor and Empress have come nobly to the rescue with gifts of 15,000 yen, and the Tokyo journals at once opened subscriptions for the relief of the starving survivors, the *Jiji* collecting in a few days over 10,000 yen, and the *Nichi-Nichi* more than 8,000, while the Iwate branch of the Red Cross Society has established a temporary hospital among the suffering people.

And still the pleasant life of the foreign residents in Yokohama goes on much as it did nine years ago; men-of-war of many nations lie at ease in the beautiful harbor, now smooth and unruffled behind its superb new breakwater, and astronomers of several nations are on their way to lie in wait for the shadow of the moon when it rushes across the Hokkaido on the 9th of August. Once more will our satellite circle around us in her celestial pathway before she slips quietly in between us and the sun to shut off his light in Yezo for two precious minutes and a half.

A new system of meteorological observations made before an eclipse and with special reference to it was inaugurated for that of 1893. Taking the exact track as soon as published in the Nautical Almanac, and having careful observations made at the best and most accessible points, gave excellent results on that occasion. As the Ephemeris is issued about four years in advance, this insures three complete series before an eclipse. Noting the general meteorological conditions of the heavens is not sufficient, for the sun is in a particular part of the sky at a given hour, so the observations must be of a special character, and with distinct reference to the position of the sun, season of the year, and hour of the day when the eclipse takes place. The tabulation of this information assists greatly in selecting the best stations for eclipse-observation, and those who followed the "indications" as to clearness of sky in 1893 achieved the best results.

In that year Prof. Todd wrote to the Director of the Imperial Japanese Weather Service, requesting observations similar to those he had obtained for 1893 at different points in the Hokkaido, and his suggestions have been carried out in every particular Prof. Nakamura, Director of the Central Meteorological Observatory at Tokyo, has had printed and distributed to the different legations a pamphlet for the information of eclipse students, containing not only all the observations referred to, but a sufficiently minute discussion of them to enable all the astronomers to weigh most intelligently the probable chances of clear skies at every available point in the path of totality. The establishment of any station is thus made with full knowledge of whether it is best or worst in probable clearness; and if obliged to plant himself in some less hopeful location, the intending observer takes his own risks, with eyes wide open to the law of probabilities.

The three provinces of Yezo in which the shadow falls are Kushiro, Kitami, and Nemuro, each containing several towns, most of them, however, small and but little known to foreigners. Tri daily observations were made from July 25 to August 25 during three years, at two o'clock, half after two, and at three o'clock, at a number of these villages in the eclipse track, the results being carefully compared and comparative tables shown. From the percentage of cloud at the observation hour itself, Akkeshi, on the southeast coast, comes first in probabilities of clearness, and Esashi, on the northeast coast, second; but from the point of its constancy thirty minutes before and after the eclipse, Esashi presides over all the others, as shown by the full tables given for thirty-two days at seven towns. The selection of a station always involves much care and forethought, and responsibility enough to whiten the hair of any one except a philosophic astronomer, accustomed to take chances with nature. The probabilities at Esashi are considerably more than half in favor of clearness, and, after studying the reports and tables carefully and consulting with the meteorologists here, Prof. Todd finally selected that as his observing station, although it is farther and more difficult of access than Akkeshi, of which he had thought for a time as a probable location. But the Imperial Government has been most courteous to the Expedition, affording every facility possible, which included, with a truly royal generosity, requests to both railroad and steamer corporations for free transportation for the whole party and the instruments to any point they might select, and many other favors without which our comfort and convenience would have been much less in every way.

The interest of astronomers in this eclipse is shown by the large number assembled here for its observation—French, English, American, Japanese, and perhaps others. Already, a little less than six weeks before the important day, most of the parties have already started upon their northward way. France is represented by M. Henri Deslandres of the Paris Observatory, who is accompanied by M. Millochau and the brothers Mittau. He left Yokohama July 1st in the French warship *Alger* for Esashi. Prof. Schaeberle, head of the Lick Observatory expedition, has also started for Yezo, and will station himself at Akkeshi with his party, consisting of Mr. Burckhalter of the Chabot Observatory at Oakland, Mr. Maston, and Dr. Shuey. Prof. Terao, Director of the Tokyo Observatory, will be at Esashi; and the Astronomer Royal of England, Mr. Christie, with two assistants, is expected very soon.

Prof. Todd left Yokohama for Esashi on July 1, with his principal assistants, and about five days will be occupied in the journey. Others of the party will proceed thither after two or three weeks. With special steamers and men-of-war on the sea and the several cheerful eclipse camps on shore, the northern side of Yezo will see a surprising summer, and the innocent Ainu will probably date future history from this peaceful invasion of the foreigner. But it is a happy thing that some spots are still left on this fair earth where modern enterprise and cosmopolitan life can still afford astonishment. Yokohama is far less Japanese than it was a few years ago. More English is spoken, higher prices for simple things prevail, and jinrikisha men and sampan coolies show possibilities of brotherhood with the New York and London cabman. Japan is obviously prosperous and very happy. But I have heard seven Japanese babies crying since I came to this lovely land, and at a delightful tea-house entertainment the other evening no painted lanterns swung in the breeze, but electric lights flashed forth from a bronze chandelier. MABEL LOOMIS TODD.

MARSHAL CASTELLANE.—II.

PARIS, July 17, 1896.

ON the 1st of January, 1813, Castellane was in Paris, "much surprised at his making visits on that day, when a month before he had found himself shoeless on the banks of the Niemen." He received his appointment as Colonel; nine years before he was a private, but, as he says, under Napoleon one had only to live to attain the highest rank. Napoleon was organizing new forces and preparing for a new campaign; he received on the 24th of January at the Tuileries the officers of the national guard of Paris, announced to them that he left in their protection the Empress and the King of Rome, that the enemy had offered him humiliating terms which he could not accept. "General Hullin, the Adjutant Laborde, Regnault de St.-Jean-d'Angély, the Chamberlains Marmier, Janson, and others wept. Mme. de Marmier, who accompanied the Empress, fainted away. In the evening the household of the Emperor took the oath to the Empress, the new Regent." Castellane gives us day by day notes on the campaign of 1814, brief, but none the less eloquent. It is clear that he could hardly bear to enter into details on the terrible events which marked this year 1814. The notes become shorter and shorter as the end approaches: "March 18th. The Emperor is at Fère-Champenoise.—20th. The Emperor is at Arcis-sur-Aube.—25th. The Allies occupy Château-Thierry, La Ferté-Milon, and Soissons." On the 5th of April Castellane's regiment received orders to return from Tours to Versailles. It had not been engaged in the military operations in the East of France. On the 9th of April Castellane goes to Paris to secure the adhesion of his corps to a provisory government, composed of Talleyrand, Jaucourt, the Abbé de Montesquiou, the Duke of Dalberg, and General Beurnonville. "The sight of foreigners in the

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capital," he says, "makes me ill. They told me at Talleyrand's, who is the sovereign *ad interim*, that I must leave off my tricolor cockade. I know no other; it made me angry. They pointed out to me that the marshals now wear white cockades. I submitted grumbling, but twenty-four hours afterwards my cockade left my calpac."

Castellane belonged, by birth, to the world of the émigrés, who were returning to the surface; but he had entered the army at eighteen, had followed the Emperor on many battlefields, and was a soldier *par excellence*. He had won every grade by hard work, and he was dissatisfied when "many men who never served are appointed lieutenants in the King's household. . . . Many people think now that the military career will be less fatiguing, less dangerous; they feel a surprising zeal for it." Castellane says in a note that if he had asked for promotion at this time, he could have been made *maréchal de camp* (the equivalent of brigadier-general). "I would not do it," says he, "as I was exasperated by all the grades bestowed by Louis XVIII. on his household troops, among which I saw improvised colonels who had never seen any service, and who thought no more of the Bourbons than we ourselves before their arrival. We knew nothing of the Bourbons, except that under the old régime the sovereigns bore that name; but these faithful servants were walking in the Bois de Boulogne while we were fighting."

Castellane's anger against the Duke de Berry was intense. The Duke was reorganizing the army and filling it with émigrés. "He is very obstinate, very rude; he thinks he can ape the Emperor (who was rude only when he thought it politic to be so). This does not give him the talent of Napoleon. . . . It is impossible to find a more stupid prince; he is mad, furiously mad—the Duke de Berry struck Meyronnet of the First Chasseurs with his sword. He called Colonel Robert and Major Villate d——d rogues, General Mensian a fat pig, etc." Castellane adds: "The Duke d'Orléans makes himself beloved by his politeness, his good manners; he is witty and well instructed." We can see in these notes the cause of the great unpopularity of the Bourbons in the army. "It is enough now to have done nothing for twenty years to obtain high grades. The reason given is that, if it had not been for the Revolution, these gentlemen would be *maréchaux de camp*, lieutenant-generals; but, if they had made war, they would not be so numerous! They complain of the bad spirit of the army. I think myself that the army is very patient to bear such things; if liberty of the press existed, such appointments could not be made; they would be exposed in all the papers."

When Napoleon returned from Elba, Castellane left Paris to join his regiment, the First Hussars. "I met at Meaux the First Lancers; the soldiers were anxious to see the Emperor Napoleon. They said openly: 'It was wrong to send us against him; we will join him.' Many soldiers showed their tricolor cockade concealed under the white cockade. They said: 'The weather is favorable for violets.' After a little while they called the Emperor 'Père la Violette.'" The Duke de Berry did not even attempt resistance in Paris, and left with the King for Lisle. Castellane learned on his way that his regiment, the First Hussars, had adopted the tricolor cockade at Metz. He returned to Paris. "From the 30th of March," says Castellane, "to the 1st of July, 1815, I took only a few notes in a pocket-book; very curious things are thus omitted." We must regret it, but we understand it.

Castellane was not a psychologist, an analyzer of human feelings, but it is easy to gather that his feelings were very mixed during the eventful period of which he speaks. He was quite unable to describe the conflicting emotions of his own heart, but we can, even at this distance, understand his perplexities. He had fought on the personal staff of the greatest military genius of our time. He had approached Napoleon familiarly, he had lived in the nimbus of those rays which had spread all over the universe. At the same time, he was quite shrewd and practical enough to see that all was lost for Napoleon, that the world was against him. He belonged by birth to a caste which was preparing to recover all it had lost, under a restored monarchy; he was a man of the world as well as a soldier, and he saw his best friends and relatives all ready to make room for him in the new order of things. He shared somewhat the views which Napoleon had on the subject of the Faubourg St.-Germain: "I offered them places in my army," said the Emperor; "they refused them. I offered them places in my anterooms; they all wanted them"—a rather exaggerated and unjust view, as Napoleon had on his own staff several distinguished officers, belonging, like Castellane, to the Faubourg St.-Germain. Still, the citations I have made from Castellane show how severely he judged the Bourbons in their relations with the army. In the conflict of his passions, Castellane had, fortunately, an unerring guide, the discipline of the army. This respect for discipline was his guide during all his lifetime; it was, with him, a sort of religion. He took no part in the last campaign of Napoleon; he remained with his family and nourished no illusions as to the end. On May 1, 1815, he writes: "The Government of the Emperor Napoleon is making great strides towards a fatal issue. Public opinion is against it. Desertion is considerable in the army. Except Champagne, Alsace, Franche-Comté, Lyons, Dauphiné, Lorraine, and a part of Burgundy, France refuses to move. La Vendée is on the point of revolting. Flanders and Picardy, on the point of being invaded, show no energy against the foreigners."

Castellane notes several times that Napoleon, though he had gone through the form of convoking a chamber, was now obliged to lean chiefly on the populace. "The Emperor has held a review, in the Place du Carrousel, of the faubourgs St.-Antoine and St.-Marceau. The spectacle was at the same time pitiful and laughable. This mob, mostly literally *sans culottes*, screamed, 'Vive l'Empereur! Down with the nobles! Down with the priests!'" After Waterloo, the note is very short: "We hear the news of the loss of the battle of Mont-Saint-Jean, called Waterloo by the Allies, on the 18th of June. The *matériel* of the artillery—the reserve park, the forage carts, the carriages—is in the hands of the enemy. The disorder was such that it was no longer possible to recognize a regiment. The Imperial Guard has been crushed; the rout was complete."

Castellane had to lodge twenty-five English soldiers in his house. "Their conduct is perfect," he says; "they pay for all they ask for. People compete for the English; they avoid, as much as they can, having Prussians, as these insist on being fed at the expense of their hosts." Castellane's father was president of the electoral college of the Basses-Pyrénées, and, before starting for the new elections, received his instructions from Prince Talleyrand, who told him that the ministry wished for Constitutionalists; that he did not conceal this fact, nay, was ready to proclaim it from the housetops. He begged him to "avoid electing pure Royalists as much as and more than Jacobins." These pure Royalists, sometimes called Ultras, headed by the Count d'Artois, wished to give the King an unlimited prerogative, and abhorred the Constitution. Talleyrand had succeeded in keeping the Princes from having a place in the King's Council. The Count d'Artois said to him: "Well, we have no thanks to offer *you;* you have put us out of the Council." The Prime Minister answered merely: "Monsieur will thank me for it when he is King."

Castellane expresses in his notes humane and creditable sentiments with regard to the condemnation and execution of Marshal Ney, the condemnation of Lavalette, etc. "Party spirit creates unexampled cruelty in the ranks of the ultra-Royalists. It is horrible to find in the world ladies of mild appearance speaking in favor of capital punishment, and complaining that there is not enough of it."

Castellane became, toward the end of 1815, an habitual visitor at the house of Talleyrand, where all the diplomatic society met every night. How could Talleyrand's health resist the life he led? "People arrived only towards one o'clock in the morning and stayed till four or five. This was the period of my life when I played most at cards and for the largest sums. M. de Metternich won much money from me at *creps*. Talleyrand used to throw the dice with the imperturbable tranquillity which never deserted him. The old Countess Tyokiewicz, sister of Prince Poniatowski, always, in her admiration for Prince Talleyrand, consoled herself for the loss of her money by the happiness of playing with him."

Meanwhile, Castellane had to form a new regiment of hussars, and took his recruits chiefly from Alsace and Lorraine; "the best men," he says, "for hussars." The regiment was formed at Provins and quartered at Soissons, and afterwards at Chartres. Castellane was able to spend much time in Paris, and he gives us many anecdotes on society during the years which followed the Restoration. His journal in these years savors a little too much of gossip, and I do not find much in it worth noticing.

In 1822 Castellane received his appointment as commander of Hussars of the Royal Guards. "Louis XVIII.," he says, "wrote my name with his own hand on the *ordonnance*—a thing he never does—adding: 'As for this one, people will not cry out; he has well deserved it.'" He parted with some regret from his pet regiment, the Fifth Hussars, which he had formed and disciplined. When the Spanish intervention was decided on, he hoped to be sent on active service to Spain; the regiments of the Guards drew lots for the occasion, and his regiment was not favored. So he remained in Paris while the bloodless expedition took place—an expedition very different in character from the war which Castellane had seen in his youth in the Peninsula. On his return, Oudinot said to him: "Console yourself for not having been in the army; I have not done any more than yourself."

Correspondence.

A GOLD STANDARD TICKET.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: Now that the Populistic portion of the

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Democratic party has put in nomination for the Presidency a typical Populist, I think it is time the gold-standard Democrats were deciding whether they will put in the field a Presidential ticket. For one I am very strongly in favor of a ticket which shall truly represent the gold-standard sentiment of the country. I know there may seem to be danger of so dividing the gold vote as to allow Bryan to be elected; but I believe there are many Democrats who will refuse to vote for McKinley because they do not believe that he would be an obstacle to any iniquitous silver legislation which Congress might pass. It is so difficult to foretell the course of the campaign on the part of the Republicans, and it is so uncertain as to which they desire most, sound money or a high tariff, that I believe we ought to make sure of a rallying-point for the sound money sentiment of the country. Many of the Republican papers are saying that before November the financial question will sink into insignificance and the tariff assume its rightful position of priority. So far as I am personally concerned, McKinley is to me one of the most objectionable men in the Republican party, on account of his protection principles and the narrowness of his mind. But I could subordinate personal feelings if I could be sure that he would stand as firmly against the silver lunacy as did Grant, Hayes, and Cleveland. This I do not believe, for I think there can be no doubt that, at heart, McKinley is at least a bimetallist, and that he will sign whatever bill Congress may pass. I never have seen in him any sign of firmness of character.

I do earnestly hope that those Democrats who have the ability and the influence necessary to carry through such a movement will start it at once. THEODORE ALVORD.

SANDUSKY, O., July 20, 1896.

GOVERNOR RUSSELL'S PROPHECY.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: Four years ago ex-Gov. William E. Russell, speaking in a manufacturing centre upon tariff reform to an audience largely composed of Republican protectionists, said:

"You are asking Government by law to add to your wealth and prosperity; to tax the people to give you profit; to burden them to make you rich. If she can do this for you, she can and must for any class who, by influence or corruption, can control her legislation. Take care. You are sowing the wind; you will reap the whirlwind. What will you say to the silver mine-owner who demands that Government by force shall add value to his product? What to the farmer who demands that Government shall take under its fostering care his grain and his cotton, and bank upon his crop? There is no answer to this question if Republican protection is a sound and safe principle."

The fulfilment of Governor Russell's prophecy seems dangerously near at hand. The wind has been sown, and now we are on the threshold of reaping the whirlwind. So dangerous seems the outlook that Republican protectionists are in desperation calling upon patriotic Democrats to help save the country from the wrath of the storm. And this in spite of the fact that the mine-owners are only asking what the Republican party has for the last ten years been vigorously protesting the manufacturer should have. If the Government is to make a market for the products of the manufacturer, there is no earthly reason why it should not do the same for the mine-owner, the farmer, and every other producer. If McKinley's theory of protection is right, Bryan's theory of free silver is right, and the many vagaries of the Populists are also worthy of consideration. They are all of a kind.

Evidently the Government ought to go out of the market making business entirely. This can probably not be done immediately, but, if we wish to prosper and not have our prosperity threatened by periodic revolutions and panics, we must have such an end in view, and patriotic citizens and a patriotic press ought to labor incessantly until such an end is attained. If protection is again fastened about our necks, free silver will surely follow, and the farmers and the laborers will also be heard from, and our destruction will be complete. We shall have sown the wind, and the whirlwind we shall surely reap. C. J. ALBERT.

ELMHURST, ILL., July 20, 1896.

THE COWARDICE OF HIS CONVICTIONS.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: Not long since I had occasion to call at a bank which does a large business in one of the agricultural and mining districts of the West. Naturally the conversation turned upon the financial situation, and the president of the bank, as though it were the only attitude possible for a thinking business man, expressed himself in favor of the gold-standard as essential to our national credit and general prosperity. As I was about to leave, I noticed a pile of silver literature upon the counter, whereupon he said, with a meaning smile, "That is for distribution among my customers."

The bank president referred to holds an important State office and has further political aspirations. His customers, many of whom are interested in silver mines, and nearly all of whom are disciples of Teller, Tillman, and their ilk, must be humored or he will lose their votes; so he holds back what he believes to be the truth, and deliberately feeds his customers upon the false, meanwhile laughing at their gullibility. Thus does Bryan's popularity grow in the silver States.

A WESTERN GOLD BUG.

JULY 20, 1896.

INTERNATIONAL ARBITRATION.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: The quotation from Chateaubriand, communicated by Mr. Kuhns in the *Nation* of July 2, does indeed show that the idea of international arbitration is not new. If, however, we substitute a single arbitrator for a court of arbitration, we shall find the idea to be still older. *Cf.* Isaiah ii., 4 and Micah iv., 3, according to the rendering of the "American Committee" in the Revised Version. Moreover, these passages are the original from which our new wisdom is derived. All credit to these Hebrew prophets of old!

Yours truly, W. WILLNER.

MERIDIAN, MISS., July 17, 1896.

BRADDOCK'S DEFEAT.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: In the appendix of Winthrop Sargent's 'History of the Expedition to Fort Duquesne' are printed three French accounts of Braddock's defeat, and in No. 13 of J. G. Shea's "Cramoisy Series" several other French "Relations Diverses" on the same subject are given; but, so far as I have been able to discover, a French account recently procured in Paris has escaped not merely the attention of these two editors, but of Parkman and Winsor as well. It is a four-page quarto leaflet, with the lined heading given below. Judged from its wording, it must have been the earliest account printed in France, and the writer seems to have extracted part of it from some English version. It is remarkable also as being the only French narrative that names Washington or describes his part in the defeat, which it does with high praise. Thinking this alone sufficient to make it of importance, I copy the portion which deals with the actual battle. PAUL LEICESTER FORD.

Relation | De la Victoire remportée par les François, sur un Corps | de Troupes Angloises, commandé par le Général Braddock, | près l'Ohio dans l'Amérique septentrionale. |

Le Général Braddock vint camper dans les premiers jours du mois de Juillet au petit Meadows, en deçà du Fort de Cumberland à Wills-Chreck, avec son Corps d'Armée composé de deux mille Hommes, & avec l'Artillerie, les Bagages & les Munitions. Pour profiter de l'ardeur que marquoient les Troupes, il jugea ne devoir pas différer de marcher aux François qui avoient leurs forces rassemblées au Fort du Quesne. Il s'avança vers eux avec 1200 hommes & dix pièces de canon, & laissa le reste au petit Meadows sous les ordres du Colonel Dumbar, qu'il chargea de venir le joindre aussi promptement qu'il lui seroit possible. Après avoir campé le 8 Juillet à dix milles de distance du Fort du Quesne, il se remit en marche le 9. pour s'avancer à ce Fort, en débouchant par un Bois qu'il étoit obligé de traverser, ses Troupes furent attaquées avec beaucoup de furie par des Détachemens de François & d'Indiens postés en embuscade sur des collines qui bordoient la liziere du Bois, & d'où ils fondirent avec tant d'impétuosité sur les colonnes qui exécutoient le débouchement, que la confusion se mit parmi les Troupes, nonobstant tous les efforts que le Général Braddock & tous les Officiers firent pour les rallier, deux des Régimens du Corps envoyés d'Irlande, qui lâcherent pied dès le commencement de l'attaque augmenterent le désordre, & précipiterent la déroute qui fut telle que les Officiers abandonnés de leurs Soldats se virent exposés seuls au feu de l'ennemi. Le Général Braddock qui se porta de tous côtés avec une activité des plus grandes, & qui eut cinq Chevaux tués sous lieu, reçut à travers le bras & la poitrine un coup de feu, que le mit hors de combat. Le Chevalier Pierre Halkette Colonel, qui le seconda avec beaucoup de bravoure, fut tué sur le Champ de Bataille, où près de soixante Officiers furent tués ou blessés; au milieu des efforts qu'ils faisoient pour ramener les Fuyards, le Colonel Washington se distingua encore dans cette occasion d'une maniere qui lui a mérité de grands éloges. Les débris de ce Corps d'Armée se retirerent à Wills-Creck auprès du Colonel Dumbar, obligés par la précipitation de leur Retraite d'abandonner Artillerie, Bagages, Tentes & Munitions qui tomberent entre les mains de l'Ennemi. Le Général Braddock transporté à Wuills-Creck y mourut le 13 de ses blessures, Messieurs Robert Orme & Roget Morris, ses Aydes de Camps, ont été blessés; M. Guillaume Chirley, Sécrétaire des Guerres dans ce Corps de Troupes, & fils du Gouverneur de la Virginie, a été tué; le Chevalier Jean Saint-Clair second Quartier-Maître Général, & M. Mathieu Lecsley Assistant du Quartier-Maître Général, tous deux blessés; du Régiment de Halkette, dont le Colonel est resté mort sur le Champ de Bataille, M. Gage qui en est Lieutenant Colonel a été blessé, & deux Capitaines tués, des Subalternes du même Régiment il y a eu deux Lieutenans & deux autres Officiers tués, & huit Lieutenans ou autres Officiers blessés; du Régiment de Dumbar, M. Button Lieutenant Colonel, & M. Sparkes Major ont été blessés, le Capitaine Cholmeley tué, & les Capitaines Brouvrer & Noss blessés; des Officiers subalternes de ce Régiment, il y en a eu cinq de tués & huit de blessés; du Corps d'Artillerie, le Capitaine-Lieutenant Smith a été tué, & trois Lieutenans blessés; du Corps des Ingénieurs, trois Officiers blessés; du Détachement de la Marine, deux Officiers tués; du Corps des Volontaires, le Capitaine Stone du Régiment de Warbutton blessé; des

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Compagnies indépendantes de la Nouvelle-York, le Capitaine Gates blessé, un Lieutenant tué, & deux autres Lieutenans blessés; des Troupes de la Virginie, le Capitaine Stephens blessé, & les Capitaines Poulston & Peronie tués, outre quatre Officiers subalternes tués & un blessé. On ignore à combien monte la perte des François, qui va à très-peu de chose; & nous aurions peut-être gagné, si les Troupes d'Irlande avoient tenu ferme.

Après que les débris ont été rassemblés à Wills-Creck, le Colonel Dumbar, & le Colonel Washington sont marchés avec les Troupes au Fort de Cumberland, d'où les derniers avis qui sont du 19 Juillet marquent qu'elles y étoient retranchées, qu'il ne s'étoit rien passé de nouveau dans l'intervale de ces onze jours. Que la nuit du dix-huit au dix-neuf on avoit été informé de quelques nouveaux mouvemens des François du côté de Monongehela; mais que comme on attendoit des Renforts au Camp, il y avoit lieu d'espérer que l'on seroit en état de leur tenir tête, au cas qu'ils revinssent à la charge. Si les rapports qu'on a eu des Indiens sont justes, le Corps des François avant l'action étoit supérieur en nombre, & montoit à 1100 hommes de Troupes réglées, soutenu de 600 Indiens. Leur perte, disent encore ceux-ci, n'a pas été bien forte par la furie avec laquelle les Américains répondirent aux premiers efforts des Assaillans; mais tout ce qui se publie à cet égard n'est que vague; & l'on n'attend par des Avis ultérieurs des détails plus exacts de ce Combat, & des suites qu'aura eue cette fatale ouverture de Campagne.

IS ESTHER WAKE A MYTH?

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: Joseph Seawell Jones, in his 'Defence of North Carolina,' states that the appropriation for Governor Tryon's costly "palace" was secured largely by the fascinations of the beautiful sister of "Lady" Tryon, Esther Wake, and that the county of Wake, in which is the capital, was named in her honor. Most of the old inhabitants of New Berne, which was, under Tryon, the seat of government, think that this tradition is true. On the other hand, William Gaston, a citizen of New Berne, one of the ablest judges of the Supreme Court our State has had, believed that there was no such person. He stated that he had often talked with his mother about the Tryon household, with whom she was well acquainted, and that she never mentioned Miss Esther.

A New Berne tradition in regard to her seems to negative the story of her influencing the votes of colonial legislators. This is, that "Lady" Tryon taught her sister an erect carriage by fastening a pointed stick under her chin. The subject of such heroic persuasion to good manners could hardly have been a persuader of men.

The present head of the house of Tryon, Richard Tryon, Esq., and the head of the house of Wake, Sir Hereward Wake, a descendant of Hereward the Wake of the time of William the Conqueror, have been applied to for information, but neither is able to furnish any. It occurs to me that if "Lady" Tryon had a sister with her in North Carolina, they must have been together in New York when Governor Tryon was transferred to that State. If so, it seems probable that some of the old families of your city may have contemporaneous letters describing the members of the gubernatorial household, which may throw light on the interesting question that forms the heading of this letter.

Truly yours, Kemp P. Battle.

Chapel Hill, N. C., July 23, 1896.

Notes.

In our late review of Stevenson's 'Vailima Letters,' the present publishers, Messrs. Scribner, should have been designated; they having, since the appearance of the work, acquired the rights to it, as well as to 'The Amateur Emigrant' and 'Macaire,' of Messrs. Stone & Kimball.

Macmillan Co. will shortly bring out 'An Introduction to the History of the Church of England, from the Earliest Times to the Present Day,' by Henry O. Wakeman.

Ginn & Co. have nearly ready 'The Child-Life: A Primary Reading and Education Chart,' by Mary E. Burt.

'Bushy,' a romance by Cynthia M. Westover, is in the press of the Morse Co.

Miss Georgiana L. Morrill, who took her degree as Doctor of Philosophy at the University of Heidelberg this spring, was the first American woman to receive the degree at that university. Her edition of the important Middle English poem, 'Speculum Gy de Warwik,' will soon be issued by the Early English Text Society.

Pope's 'Rape of the Lock,' "embroidered with nine drawings by Aubrey Beardsley" (London: Leonard Smithers; Philadelphia: Lippincott), will take its place among all handsomely printed books, on the one hand, and on the other among historical curiosities of art. The poem has lent its full share to our stock of familiar quotations; were it otherwise, Mr. Beardsley would hardly serve as mediator between Pope's time and the present day. He has, however, subordinated his grotesque fancy to his duty as illustrator, and shows here his best manner of design and composition.

The versatile banker and member of Parliament, Sir John Lubbock, well known for his observations on flowers and insects, now surprises us with a most attractive volume on the 'Scenery of Switzerland' (New York: Macmillan), a subject to which he has been giving his attention in vacations for thirty years past. It is of somewhat the same order as the 'Beauties of Nature,' published a few years ago, but is more systematic and thorough, being directed to the explanation of the physical features of a single region. Less technical than Fraas's 'Scenerie der Alpen,' it is in all respects a most admirable book for the intelligent reader, indicating not only a thorough acquaintance with the subject, but also a sympathy with nature that must do more good than the great array of facts so compactly presented. With Baedeker as a guide and this book as a friend, Switzerland will be even more delightful than ever before.

'From Cairo to the Soudan Frontier' (London: John Lane; Chicago: Way & Williams), by H. D. Traill, is a series of detached sketches of scenes and incidents of two recent visits to Egypt. They are varied in character, humorous, historical, imaginative, and descriptive, now giving the impressions made by the great hall of the temple of Karnak or a sunset on the Nile, now picturing the Christmas sports of the British soldier or the multifarious methods of the fellah for extracting bakshish. When the author has little to tell he indulges in a turgid style, known as "Telegraphese," after the paper for which the sketches were written; at other times he shows a keen appreciation of the fascination of Egypt, and enters fully into the spirit of both its ancient and its modern life, and then writes clearly and graphically. The sketches of greatest present interest are those describing visits to a Nubian village which was raided last December by the Dervishes, and the frontier post of Wady Halfa on the eve of the departure of the Anglo-Egyptian expedition for the Sudan.

The great undertaking of Dr. Giuseppe Pitrè to which we have so often referred in these columns, the "Biblioteca delle Tradizioni Popolari Siciliane," is drawing to a close. The nineteenth volume, 'Medicina Popolare Siciliana,' has recently appeared from the press of Carlo Clausen (Turin and Palermo). The preceding volumes have been of more general interest, perhaps, but none surpasses in value the present one. The collector is peculiarly fitted for the difficult task imposed by this division of his work, having been a practising physician in Palermo for thirty years. The work is divided into five parts: the first treats of the medical practitioners of Sicily, quacks, barbers, herbalists, etc.; the second, of anatomy, physiology, physiognomy, and hygiene; the third, of general pathology; the fourth, of special external medical and surgical pathology; and the fifth, of special internal pathology. This list gives no idea of the varied contents of the work and its wealth of proverbs and popular superstitions. The whole island has been ransacked to furnish materials, and a bibliographical note at the end mentions, for the benefit of those who wish to institute comparisons, the similar works published in other parts of Italy. An appendix contains the rude images of the saints most commonly invoked in Sicily by the sick, who carry them about with them or apply them to the diseased organs. Among these saints the reader of Dante will be interested to find Santa Lucia, who is the protectress of eyes as well as the patron saint of Syracuse. An excellent index facilitates reference to the manifold contents of the work, which contains countless points of similarity to the medical superstitions of other nations.

Students of finance will be glad to learn that Léon Say had completed before his death a work on the revenues and expenditures of the French Republic, which is now published in the *Vie Nationale* Series under the title 'Les Finances' (Paris: Léon Chailley). The subject is too technical to deal with here, but we cannot resist transcribing a few lines from the tribute paid by the editors of the series to the distinguished author, who devoted his last moments to the completion of this work. They say: "C'est ici comme le testament politique du meilleur ministre des finances de ce temps; de celui qui, pour les collaborateurs de tout rang qui l'avait vu à l'œuvre, et qui avaient connu tant d'autres chefs après lui, était resté le ministre par excellence; du seul, assurément, qui puisse être comparé aux grands ministres d'autrefois."

'La Société Américaine,' by Mlle. M. Dugard (Paris: Hachette), is the outcome of the visit paid by this accomplished woman to the United States at the time of the Chicago Exposition. Mlle. Dugard, who is a professor in the Lycée Molière at Paris, came here with the special purpose of studying educational establishments, and this in no perfunctory manner. She went to work in earnest, visited schools and colleges, questioned presidents, principals, professors, and teachers, studied programmes and delved into reports, attended classes and lectures, familiarized herself with the taught as well as the teachers, put aside prejudices, prepossessions, and misconceptions, and honestly tried to see things in this country as they are. Now she tells, in this interesting book of hers, the result of her labors, investigations, and experience. She gives infinitely more facts than impressions, aims at being exact rather than witty, and consequently

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presents a truer and more thorough picture than any other we have had shown us for some time. Mlle. Dugard writes easily, intelligently, and pleasantly, and her book will command the attention of thinking readers here and in France.

Teodor de Wyzewa, whose articles are now well known to readers of the *Revue Bleue*, has published a volume of somewhat brief studies of 'Écrivains Étrangers' (Paris: Perrin & Cie.). The chapters on De Quincy, Edgar Allan Poe, and Walt Whitman are some of the more interesting. That on Whitman is almost enthusiastic, and he is called the only American writer worthy of the name of poet in recent years.

In a large thick octavo, with some admirable illustrations, 'Chateaubriand, sa Femme et ses Amis' (Bordeaux: Feret & Fils), M. G. Pailhès makes a noteworthy contribution to the literature of the Romantic movement in France which is inseparably associated with the name of Chateaubriand. M. Pailhès has had access to much unpublished matter, a large portion of which is valuable as casting additional light on the character and ways of the great Frenchman. He has composed a most interesting book, which must henceforth be consulted by all students of French literature at the beginning of this century.

Léo Claretie's 'Jean-Jacques Rousseau et ses Amies' (Paris: Chailley) is useful to students of Rousseau's works, inasmuch as it gives very full accounts of the different women whose influence made itself felt by turns upon the misanthrope. It is on Mme. d'Houdetot that M. Claretie has bestowed the greater part of his attention. His short account of Thérèse Levasseur is not very sympathetic.

A remarkable feature of the current proceedings of the Massachusetts Historical Society (2d series, volume x.) is the inclusion of a memoir of the society's late president, Rev. George E. Ellis, by the Rev. O. B. Frothingham, followed by one of Mr. Frothingham himself. The volume contains numerous papers of value, some of which we have already commented on in advance of publication, thanks to "offprints": such are Mr. Wm. S. Appleton's tabular "Century of the Senate of the United States," Mr. J. T. Hassam's list of confiscated estates of Boston Loyalists, and Mr. Edward L. Pierce's extracts from the Diary of John Rowe, this same writer contributing also a very salutary admonition about "Recollections as a Source of History." The chief plum of the inedited matter is beyond question the private letters of John Quincy Adams during his residence at St. Petersburg as United States Minister in the closing years of Napoleon's duel with Europe, and while the war of 1812 was in progress. They are characteristic of Adams's judgment and penetration, and fit in well with the present revival of interest in the great military genius who, in Adams's words, "will be ranged, not among the Alexanders, Cæsars, and Charlemains, but among the Hannibals, Pompeys, and Charles the 12ths." We detect a plausible typographical error on p. 379, eleventh line from bottom. "Little man" (as if Napoleon) should read "little men," and the comma deleted that separates "little men" and "little means" "by which the great powers and resources of England are wasted in this contest."

The Report of the Sixth International Geographical Congress, held in London in 1895, has lately been issued by the Secretaries, Keltie and Mill, in a large volume of nearly a thousand pages (London: Murray). The papers are printed in the language in which they were delivered at the Congress, and afford a pleasing polyglot exercise in the reading. Among many interesting items, a few may be mentioned: the map showing the numerous triangulation belts in the Great Trigonometrical Survey of India; Buchanan's retrospect of oceanography; the announcement by Lallemand, director of the French service of general levellings, that the Mediterranean and the Atlantic are, after all that has been said, really at the same level; Libbey's account of the Gulf Stream and the Labrador current; Penck's essay on geomorphological nomenclature, and several essays on the educational aspect of geography by Levasseur, Lehmann, Herbertson, and Henkel. Discussions on the polar regions, the habitability of Africa by white races, and other standard geographical subjects are duly represented. The resolutions adopted by the Congress are printed in full (pp. 779-787).

The principal article of the *Geographical Journal* for July is an admirable account of the Pamirs by the Right Hon. Geo. N. Curzon. It is largely descriptive of a journey to this region in 1894, and gives a clear idea of the Pamir, which is "neither a plain nor a down, nor a steppe, nor a plateau, but a mountain valley of glacial formation." The meaning and derivation of the word he regards as uncertain, notwithstanding the numerous theories of the philologists. The Pamirs are eight in number, and vary in length from ten to eighty miles, in width from one to six miles. Considerable space is devoted to a description of the *Ovis Poli*, which Mr. Curzon fears is in danger of extermination by British sportsmen, and to a discussion of the claims of a stream issuing from an ice-cavern in the Wakhan Pamir to be regarded as the true source of the Oxus. A fine map of this part of Central Asia accompanies the paper.

We read in the *American Amateur Photographer* for July of a collection, long in forming, but not yet exhibited, in the National Museum at Washington, "illustrating the history and methods of the art of photography." Some fifty prints were bought at the Washington Salon of the present season, and it is intended to keep the collection abreast of the development of the photographic art.

A correspondent writes to us from "Oxbow," Newbury, Vermont: "I have just noticed your letter from Mr. Albert Matthews about the word Oxbow. Here both the bend in the river and the land enclosed are spoken of as the Oxbow, and also the little settlement of five houses and a number of farms. For over a hundred years 'Oxbow mail,' 'Oxbow people,' etc., have been spoken of. The town is, however, Newbury, not 'Newburg,' as Mr. Matthews has it [a typographical error]."

—The latest volume of the Mermaid Series of Plays, "The Best Plays of the Old Dramatists" (London: Unwin; New York: Scribners), contains Sir John Vanbrugh's "Relapse," "Provoked Wife," "The Confederacy," and "Journey to London." None of them have held the stage, but this is not because they have no inherent principle of vitality. If the "Relapse" or "Virtue in Danger" could be acted now, we venture to say that it would draw a great crowd. *Miss Hoyden*, the heiress, daughter of *Sir Tunbelly*, is a capital character, and the scene between her and her nurse would send any audience into shouts of laughter. The difficulty is that no manager would dare to put it on the stage, and if any so bold could be found, the police would never allow a second performance—and this though the author assures us that any lady will find it so innocent that she will be quite ready to put it on the same shelf with her prayer-book. What was the idea of the contemporaries of Sir John on the subject of propriety? It has often been pointed out that what we call coarseness was not coarse to them; but no one, so far as we know, has made any thorough investigation into what did offend their sense of decency. Garrick, acting *Sir John Brute*, is said to have changed the disguise in the drunken scene from that of a clergyman to that of a woman of the town, "to suit the delicacy of the time." If he were acting to-day he would have to go back to the clergyman. The editor's notes are good, and Leigh Hunt's biographical notice is included. Vanbrugh's plays seem to have brought him more fame than his architecture, as to which, unfortunately, the only thing that most persons recollect is

> "Lie heavy on him, Earth, for he
> Laid many a heavy load on thee."

He was the architect of Blenheim, of which every illustrated paper in the world has lately had cuts, and his employment led to no end of trouble for him. Parliament neglected to supply the money to build it, the Duke of Marlborough protested it was no concern of his, the Duchess, after his death, tried to fasten some of the expense on Vanbrugh himself, and behaved in such a way that he expressed the opinion to his friend Tonson that she ought to be hanged. Blenheim was lampooned by Pope:

> "Thanks, sir, said I, 'tis very fine,
> But where d'ye sleep, or where d'ye dine?"

Indeed, almost everything that Vanbrugh built seems to have been pronounced fine and laughed at at the same time. The reason for this his critics do not make clear.

—Under the title 'Old French Romances' (Scribners), Mr. William Morris has reissued for the general public his versions of four mediæval French tales, already printed for the æsthetic few at the Kelmscott Press. The new edition contains also a brief but valuable introduction by Mr. Joseph Jacobs, of which we need say only that it displays its author's customary erudition in matters of this kind, not to mention his gay and at times even jovial manner. The stories chosen by Mr. Morris are four of the five in the little volume 'Nouvelles françaises en prose du 13ième siècle,' published as long ago as 1856 by MM. Moland and d'Héricault (the fifth tale in that collection being the delightful *chantefable* of "Aucassin et Nicolete," which Mr. Andrew Lang has done into English, as everybody knows). The present volume contains, then, the stories of "L'Empereur Constant," "Ami et Amile," "Le Roi Flore et la belle Jehane," and "La Comtesse de Ponthieu" (or, as Mr. Morris prefers, "Istore d'Outre-Mer"). In the case of the first two of these, readers of Old French will regret that the translations should be based upon the decidedly inferior prose forms of the tales rather than on the earlier and more poetical narratives in verse which are preserved to us. The last two exist in French only in prose, and we must perforce be satisfied with them as they are. All four stories are, however, in any form engaging and delightful. The first, "L'Empereur Constant," Mr. Morris has already retold (with some variations derived from other forms of the legend) in the 'Earthly Paradise,' as "The Man Born to be King." The second, "Ami et Amile," is the most famous mediæval representative of stories about perfect friendship,

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like that of David and Jonathan or of Orestes and Pylades. The third, "Le Roi Flore et la belle Jehane," gives us one of the mediæval forms of the Cymbeline story of a wager about a wife's virtue. The last, "La Comtesse de Ponthieu," describes a strange and pathetic adventure extrinsically connected with the Crusades. It is probable that all the tales were originally Byzantine or Oriental.

—It is perhaps not a matter of consequence whether Mr. Morris's version is philologically sound or not (it really is not very bad from this point of view), for he does not profess to be a philologist. The question of the character of the English style he has adopted has, on the other hand, some interest. A German has already written a dissertation on the sources of the 'Earthly Paradise'; perhaps we may later get one on the sources of Mr. Morris's Romantic grammar. We should like to know, for example, how he came to be so fond of the ugly word "much" used as an intensive ("a *much* valiant man," "a *much* good dame," p. 119). His conjugation strikes us at times as having a curious similarity to that of the American negro ("And the Emperor Constans . . . . did do christen his wife," p. 23; "The Emperor did do slit the belly of him with a knife from the breast down to the navel," p. 6). We are somewhat at a loss to translate into the vernacular such locutions as "much long aloof thence" (p. 13); and though the statement that the young Constans "entered into the garden all a-horseback" (p. 14) seems to reproduce the French *si entra ou gardin tout à cheval*, it can hardly be called a current English equivalent of it. But no doubt the style adopted by Mr. Morris, both here and in his translations of the Northern Sagas, is intended to be caviare to the general. One thing is sure, that the style of the Old French narrators stood in no such relation to the common speech of mediæval France as Mr. Morris's to our tongue. And if translation be reproducing as nearly as possible the manner and tone, as well as the matter, of the original, this is not translation at all.

—Mr. Poynter, the new Director of the National Gallery in London, seems anxious to prove his readiness to fill certain much criticised gaps in the collection now under his charge. The refusal of his predecessor to recognize any French painters later than eighteenth-century masters has long been a scandal, and, as yet, Mr. Poynter has done nothing to improve matters in this respect. But scarcely less serious have been the omissions in the Spanish room. Here, it is true, are two very fine portraits of Philip, as well as other fairly characteristic, if not very splendid, examples of Velasquez in different phases of his career; and here, too, are the inevitable Murillos. Hitherto, however, there has been little else. A poor specimen of Il Greco was added recently. But all the pictures of the Spanish school can still be hung in a small gallery, while the Italian Primitives alone monopolize three or four times as much space. One of the Spaniards whose absence until the other day was most conspicuous was Goya, but it is to make place for him that Mr. Poynter has set about the much-needed reform. The late Osuna sale in Madrid should have been an excellent opportunity for the director no less than the dealer. The Duke of Osuna, among his treasures, could boast of many of the finest canvases Goya ever painted, and, indeed, indignation throughout Spain was strong when it was found that he was about to part with his collection. As every one knows, there is not much wealth, public or private, just now in the country to be invested in art, and the scattering of the Osuna Goyas beyond the Pyrenees was inevitable. But at this sale Mr. Poynter managed to secure only two small paintings—"Merienda Campestre," a Watteau-like composition, not without charm in the landscape background, but hardly characteristic of Goya except in the central figure, and "El Hechizado por Fuerza."

—The tiara of Saïtapharnes is perhaps the most interesting and most precious of all the recent acquisitions of the Louvre. It is a crown of gold in the shape of an Oriental mitre, of most surprising workmanship, and of inappreciable value, both artistic and historic. It is certainly the finest known specimen of Greek art in this kind, and is in an absolutely perfect state of preservation. It has become so well known since its purchase last spring for the Louvre that there is no need of speaking of it in detail. Its authenticity has hitherto been undisputed, but the *Petit Journal* of June 27 puts it in question, relying upon a letter of a professor in the University of St. Petersburg, M. Vesselovsky, who challenges the genuineness of the tiara in the *Novoe Vremya*. "It is time," the professor writes, "to say that this tiara is a piece of the Otchakof work of our time. The manufacture of spurious antiquities has been going on at Otchakof for some years, and has reached such a point of perfection as to deceive archæologists. The famous tiara of Saïtapharnes is not the only object of this sort. There exists at Kherson, in private hands, a crown of the same workmanship, but of a different shape." By a lucky chance the crown of Kherson happens to be in Paris and not elsewhere—in private hands, indeed, but in hands which have already offered it to the Louvre, where it has been rejected. The comparison which was made between it and the tiara of Saïtapharnes showed at first glance that there was no likeness between the two objects, whether in workmanship or in style, and consequently no likelihood that they were of the same origin. M. Héron de Villefosse, keeper of antiquities at the Louvre, writes to the *Temps* in this sense, and adds that it does not appear that the Russian professor has ever seen the tiara of Saïtapharnes. He adds, with such tender mercy as now and then survives in the breasts of archæologists, that M. Vesselovsky finds full satisfaction in saying that they make a good many false antiquities at Otchakof, and goes on to say: "We knew that a good while ago. Such counterfeits are made also at Rome and at Naples; but until now it has never come into anybody's head to account an object spurious simply because it happens to come from Rome or Naples."

—The department of antiquities illustrative of legal usages in the Germanic National Museum has been recently enriched by a curious and unique collection of so-called "Leibzeichen" (body tokens), the grewsome heirloom of the town of Scheinfeld. The term *Leibzeichen* is common enough in old lawbooks, and is defined by Grimm, but will be looked for in vain in any ordinary German dictionary or in the omniscient "Conversations-Lexikon." In case of murder, German jurisprudence in the Middle Ages (and also in modern times as late at least as the first half of the eighteenth century) demanded positive and ocular proof of the commission of the crime in the form of a *corpus delicti*, which had to be taken from the body of the victim in the presence of a magistrate or other officer of justice. A finger, a foot, a fragment of the skull, a blood-stained piece of clothing served this purpose. One can easily imagine the hideous effect produced by a whole collection of such objects, each labelled with the name of the murdered person and that of the murderer, together with the manner and date of death, and signed by the "Centknecht" or reeve of the "Centgericht," corresponding to the hundred court of England and the district court of the United States. The oldest specimen in the Scheinfeld collection is of the year 1669, and the latest is dated 1731. From an historical point of view these "Leibzeichen" are interesting survivals of the painful and superfluous pedantry that once prevailed in German criminal courts and often hemmed and thwarted the course of justice. Such ghastly tokens are no longer required as evidence, but the spirit which found expression in them is by no means foreign to the judiciary of Germany at the present day.

—The European nations are keeping up a peaceful rivalry in laying the foundations for a nobler physical manhood in the rising and future generations. The Germans, through the Central Committee for the Advancement of Games for the People and for Youth, decided against participating in the Olympian Games at Athens (for reasons which will be explained in No. 3 of *Das Humanistische Gymnasium*); but the plans are being matured for instituting a German Olympia, a national festival after the manner of the Olympian Games, to be celebrated for the first time in 1900, and at regular intervals thereafter, probably at Leipzig, the spot "consecrated by the great Battle of Nations." The secretary of the above-mentioned committee, Realschuldirector Raydt, has published a brochure on the subject, 'Nationaltage für deutsche Kampfspiele' (Leipzig: Voigtländer). During the present month the second German congress *für Volks- und Jugendspiele* has been in session at Munich. A former congress, held in Berlin, was attended by representatives of fifty cities, of several hundred societies, and of ten German governments, so that a large meeting at Munich was anticipated. In France the question of public bathing and swimming and the establishment of baths in connection with the schools is seriously agitating the minds of reformers. Little has been done in this direction by French cities in comparison with those of other countries, notably in Belgium, England, Germany, Austria-Hungary (see the *Revue Pédagogique* for June). It appears that of Belgian soldiers 80 per cent. can swim, while in the French army scarcely 10 to 12 per cent. have learned this useful art. England spent for public baths the sum of 27,500,000 francs in the period 1883–89. In Budapest (Hungary) these establishments give out 3,000,000 tickets (at two cents) each year, a daily average of 7,000 in winter and 9,000 in summer. Reports from departments both in the north and south of France show that the agitation against the abuse of alcoholic drinks is not relaxing; lectures by specialists before teachers and students, and the forming of "ligues scolaires contre l'usage des boissons spiritueuses" are in vogue. The latter are affiliated with a central society in Paris at No. 46 Rue de Vaugirard, and make use of pledges which do not jar with national custom; the youthful signers simply binding themselves for a definite period (one year) to

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abstain from the use of brandy and *liqueurs*, and to use wine, beer, and cider only in moderation.

WOMAN UNDER MONASTICISM.

Woman under Monasticism: Chapters on Saint-lore and Convent Life between A. D. 500 and A. D. 1500. By Lina Eckenstein. Cambridge: University Press; New York: Macmillan. 1896. Pp. 496.

MISS ECKENSTEIN'S book has involved a vast amount of research and of keen critical judgment; it is a splendid specimen of the result to be obtained by modern scholarship when applied to a fruitful theme which has had the chance to be strangely overlooked; it is, besides, a picture of absorbing interest, which can be read with delight by the plain person who gives no thought to the immense amount of labor involved in putting it together.

There is an increasing tendency, as a result of wider research and of a more unbiassed weighing of the plain evidence of contemporaries, to acknowledge the debt of gratitude which mankind owes to the monastic and religious orders. The present work deals with the subject only as it concerns the share of women in utilizing the religious retreats as a storehouse for the preservation, during troublous times, of the world's acquisition of learning and of the gentler ways of living; but it is the share of women in this good work which has been most conspicuously overlooked. To use the words of our author:

"The woman saint has met with scant treatment beyond that of the eulogistic but uncritical writer of works of devotion; the literary nun has engrossed the attention of few biographers. The partisan recriminations of the Reformation have been too widely prevalent. The saint is thrust aside as a representative of gross superstition, and the nun is looked upon as a slothful and hysterical, if not as a dissolute, character. She has been too long thought of as those who broke with the Catholic Church chose to depict her. As part of an institution which had outlived its purpose, she was perhaps bound to pass away, but the work she had done and the aims for which she had striven, contributed their share in formulating the new standards of life."

In the present volume it is the development and history of monastic life among German and English women only that is depicted; it is to be hoped that the subject will also be taken up as it concerns the women of Italy and France, where documentary evidence is still more abundant. This story begins, for the sake of completeness, with the position of women among the pre-Christian Germans. Early hagiology reproduces in many respects the incidents connected with the religious influence of women during heathen times. The chapter on the transformation of the tribal goddess into the Christian saint is particularly interesting. In the legends concerning the earliest women-saints, there is much that is pre-Christian, and even anti-Christian, in character. Usually the legend of a saint does not get written until after her cult has become of long standing, and then the legend-writer refers her life to a remote historical background, frequently to a time when Christianity was unknown in the neighborhood in which she was reverenced, and he blends with her story local traditions often of very discordant character. Her cult frequently centres, for instance, around a cave, a fountain of peculiar power, a tree, or some other site of primitive woman-worship, and there are survivals in many cases of details which can have had their origin only in the period of matriarchy.

We have no space to touch upon all the interesting topics discussed in this volume, from the establishment of numerous nunneries as places of retreat for royal maidens and widows after the Frankish invasion, through the important development of the religious life among the Anglo-Saxons, the interesting phase of conventual experience at Poitiers, and at Gandersheim in Saxony (where the learned Hrotsvith lived and wrote), the work of the nuns in art industries, in literature, and in philanthropy (under the auspices of Hildegard a book was compiled on the uses of drugs and simples which forms a landmark in the history of mediæval medicine), and finally the causes of dissolution (which were already effective before the Reformation, and which are here depicted in a masterly manner), and, as a closing scene, the heroic resistance to the breaking up of her nunnery made by Charitas Pirckheimer, Abbess of Nuremberg. The extent to which it is shown that learning was cultivated among the nuns will be a surprise to those who approach the subject for the first time. In the sixth century the royal abbess Radegund wrote epistles in verse under the tuition of an exiled Roman poet; to an Anglo Saxon nun whose name is not recorded we owe one of the earliest and most interesting accounts extant of a journey to Palestine; in the eighth century the nun Lioba was trying her hand at Latin verse in a convent at Thanet; in the tenth and twelfth centuries Hrotsvith and Herrad made their better-known contributions to literature. The curriculum of study in the nunnery was as liberal as that followed by monks, and embraced all available writing, whether by Christian or profane authors. Cicero, Virgil, and Terence were read as zealously as the writings of the Fathers of the Church. From remarks made by Hrotsvith, it is plain that the coarseness of the later Latin dramatists was not held to be a reason for their being forbidden to nuns, though she would have seen it otherwise; and Herrad was so impressed by the wisdom of the heathen philosophers of antiquity that she pronounced it to be the "product of the Holy Spirit also."

The most interesting chapters of the book are those devoted to the lives of the two learned women whose names we have just mentioned. The literary work of Hrotsvith was of three forms—metrical legends written for the edification of members of convents; seven dramas in the style of Terence; and contemporary history in metrical form. As a writer of legends and of history, she ranks with other authors of the time; as a writer of Latin drama, she stands alone. Between the comedies of classic times and the miracle-plays (which consisted at first of only a few scenes, with dialogue of the baldest kind), there are no other dramatic compositions except hers. Ebert, the historian of the literature of western Europe, writes of her: "This fruitful poetic talent, which lacks not the inspiration and the courage of genius to enter upon new ground, evinces how the Saxon element was destined to guide the German nation in the domain of art." The modesty with which she speaks of her own work is very charming. Like many another woman, she wrote, at first, "unknown to others, and secretly." A letter to some friends, now unknown, who had engaged to criticise her plays, shows the attitude of the religious woman towards profane learning. She writes:

"Till now I have dared to show my rude productions only to a few of my nearest friends. From you I take confidence, and feel strengthened by your approval. And yet I am divided between joy and fear, which contend within me; in my heart I rejoice, praising God through whose grace alone I have become what I am, and yet I am fearful of appearing greater than I am, being perplexed by two things, both of which are wrong, namely, the neglect of talents vouchsafed to one by God, and the pretence to talents one has not."

There has recently been a revival of interest in Hrotsvith's work, and much has been written about her during the last thirty years.

Herrad, the abbess of a nunnery in Alsace, conceived the idea of making for the use of her nuns an encyclopædic book, which should embody, in pictures and in words, all the knowledge of her time. The importance of this work has long survived its original purpose; with its hundreds of illustrations and its copious text, it has afforded a wealth of information on the customs, conceptions, and mode of life in the twelfth century which is not to be obtained elsewhere. The work itself is no longer in existence; the manuscript was destroyed in the fire which broke out in the library of Strasbourg when that city was bombarded by the Germans in 1870. The Society for the Preservation of the Monuments of Alsace is at present collecting and publishing a reproduction of all existing tracings and copies of the pictures or of parts of them. This collection already numbers nearly two hundred; they are mere fragments of the work itself, but they are of the highest interest. Gérard, who was probably the last to see and handle the work of Herrad, was especially struck by her pictures of the Last Judgment and of Heaven and Hell; on the strength of these pictures he numbers Herrad among the most imaginative painters the world has known. She also wrote verses; this couplet of hers deserves to be remembered:

"Spernere mundum, spernere nullum, spernere sese,
Spernere sperni se, quatuor haec bona sunt."

These are specimens of the learning which was open to women and was seized upon by them with avidity and enthusiasm five hundred and a thousand years ago. By a curious fatality, the very cause which made learning freer and more untrammelled for men, and started it upon the immense developments of modern times, was what rendered it inaccessible to women—the growth of the great universities. In the eighth century Bede could be a learned man though he never stirred from his convent; in the thirteenth and fourteenth centuries this was no longer possible: the centre of education was the disputations of the lecture-room. The monasteries of men secured houses at the university centres, to which they sent their promising pupils; but the tone at the universities was such that no attempt was made in this direction by the convents of women. As a result, their standard fell. There followed a want of interest in intellectual acquirements among nuns, and this was accompanied by a growing indifference in the outside world to the intellectual acquirements of women in general. Thus the preservation of a higher moral tone among women has been at the cost of their participation in the intellectual interests of men. As has been pointed out upon occasion in these columns, the restriction of women to the frivolous interests of life has in the end acted adversely upon an ideal moral tone for men and women alike.

Miss Eckenstein's book is an earnest of the contributions to knowledge which will result from the revival of learning among women at the present time. She is conversant with

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classical, mediæval, and ecclesiastical Latin, and the voluminous original sources of her subject are familiar to her. She is, moreover, keenly alive to the important bearing of her picture of mediæval activity on the part of women upon the question of the status of women at the present day. The right to self-development and social responsibility which is asked for by the modern woman is analogous to the right which the convent secured to her eight centuries ago. Provided she agreed to forego the claims of family and sex, an honorable independence was assured her, and she was brought into contact with the highest aims of her age. Such was the prestige enjoyed by the heads of religious settlements that kings and queens frequently installed their daughters as abbesses instead of seeking matrimonial alliances for them. Many married women left their husbands for the purpose of founding and governing convents; sometimes they intrusted their management to others, and themselves retired to them later in life. The career which was open to an inmate of a convent was greater, both in England and on the Continent, than any other ever thrown open to women in the course of modern European history. In the Kentish charter the names of the abbesses follow those of the bishops. In Saxony it fell to an abbess to act as representative of the Emperor during his absence. As independent landowners, who held their property of and from King and Emperor, abbesses took rank with the lords temporal and spiritual, and shared their right of being represented in Parliament or at the Imperial Diet.

The causes for the change that ensued in this state of things were at work long before the wholesale suppression of the monasteries at the time of the Reformation. Quite in accord with the discovery made by those who have investigated the historical development of marriage, it appears here also that it is only to the extent to which women have been able to keep the control of their property in their own hands that they have been able to preserve their independence. Consequent upon the spread of the feudal system of land tenure, which, in the interest of an improved military organization, reserved the holding of property for men, women forfeited their chance of founding and endowing independent monasteries; the houses founded after the monastic revival of the 12th century were of decreasing influence, and their heads were more and more subjected to the domination of the monks. The lesson to be drawn for modern times is plain.

RECENT FICTION.

Embarrassments. By Henry James. Macmillan.

His Honour, and a Lady. By Mrs. Everard Cotes (Sara Jeannette Duncan). D. Appleton & Co.

In a Dike Shanty. By Maria Louise Pool. Chicago: Stone & Kimball.

The Way They Loved at Grimpat. By E. Rentoul Esler. Henry Holt & Co.

THE critic in the first of the four stories in Henry James's latest collection, 'Embarrassments,' who scratches his head and asks, in regard to the mysterious secret of Hugh Vereker's literary quality, "Is it something in the style or something in the thought—an element of form or an element of feeling?" puts a question over which, as regards the author himself, many have puzzled. The material for judgment is amply spread in this volume. That style and form count for a vast deal with Mr. James is evident. Such verbal niceties and felicities, such crisp compactness varied by such leisurely lingering over evanescent detail, are not the offspring of an effortless imagination. They betray the patient and watchful artificer. But there is something in the thought, too, in these stories which makes the style seem to fit it like a glove. Two of the themes are subtly psychological—one, in fact, psychical-researchical—and two propound vague literary problems. They are well named 'Embarrassments,' and to almost any other writer would have proved such. But Mr. James plays with his mysteries so deftly and delicately, seems so on the verge of disclosing them as you think he easily might, only to leave the veil over them finally, as you see, on reflection, that he really has to do, that his very elusiveness and indefiniteness of effect somehow prove his mastery. If you are slightly mystified, it is because he meant you to be. The last story, "The Way It Came," is a *tour de force* in one particular at least: none of the characters is named, yet by use of pronouns alone the somewhat complicated interplay is kept perfectly clear, so neat is the management.

Ever since Thackeray led the way in spitting Anglo-Indian officers and their ladies on the darts of satire, writers of fiction have been quick to perceive how openly human nature exposes its foibles in India, where, in military and civil service circles, the full blaze of tropical day shines down on every one's passions and jealousies. Among the colony of exiles in her Majesty's service whose social focus is Government House in Calcutta, Mrs. Everard Cotes naturally finds several who are irresistible objects of ironical pleasantry. But snobs are not her first consideration; they are merely sport for lighter moments. Hearts are the stuff of serious argument, and if one—warmest though most erring of all—is caught and crushed between the upper and nether millstones of ambition and treachery, this might as easily have happened in a climate of fogs as in a setting of pipal trees and dusky syces and coolies. Judith Church, whom destiny thus singles out to suffer and grow strong, and whose expiation for having failed in the spirit while keeping the letter of her marriage vow, it would be interesting to follow in a sequel, is not merely ornamental in her rôle of heroine and temporary great lady, but is also an animate and palpable person. In this respect her whilom rival, Rhoda Daye, has not fared so well at the hands of her delineator. "You can't have it, mummie; it isn't a nice book for you to read." Such are the terms in which Rhoda Daye protects her mother from the contamination of 'Cruelle Énigme,' and from which it may be clearly inferred that she represents the typical young woman of the period. Very typical indeed she is in her nonchalance and self-poise and with her unbridled tongue. On this basis she will be cheerfully accepted by the experienced reader, who knows that the novelist's type can seldom be at the same time a creature of unmistakable flesh and blood. There is plenty of smart writing, about her as about others; and smartness, there is good reason to suspect, is the fault of Mrs. Cotes's style. Something, at least, there is in it which produces after a while a sensation of ennui and a desire to stretch the limbs and rest. Nevertheless, as stories go nowadays, 'His Honour, and a Lady' holds its own in interest, and the catastrophe which follows the exposure of the Chief Secretary's disloyalty, though saddening, gives rise to the conclusion that an involuntary deflection from the line of duty, if duly repented of, need leave behind it no weakening of the moral fibre.

'In a Dike Shanty' deserves appreciation for the humor, cheerful and hearty, with which the peculiarities of gnarly country character have been observed and recorded. Whatever is oddest or most provocative of a smile in the sayings and doings of the natives of an outlandish corner of New England has been gathered together, freely intermingled with fictional invention of her own, by their note-taking neighbor of the shanty. In many respects the dike folks will be found to resemble their country kindred the world over, particularly in their prejudice against the race of trained nurses, led with the energy of a war-cry by the veteran July Burns, and shared by her neighbors far and near. Fresh air and hay-making are always good things in their way, even in a book, but the dike haymaking has features it would have been agreeable to dispense with. Mirth at the expense of an idiot is necessarily, indeed, of doubtful expediency, and it is not surprising that, in making merry with Ozias Baker and his unfortunate parent, Miss Pool has not been able to steer altogether clear of the disgusting. Entirely false in pitch are the descriptions of the dangerously magnetic young person who sustains the sentimental parts of the piece. She is "Southern New England," has a smile which causes "a permeable and pleasurable knowledge," a face and eyes of "delicious suggestions," and various other disqualifications—if there is anything in heredity—for playing niece to Rodge Peake's wife and heroine to a quiet tale of plain country ways. Her "Tallahassee gentleman" puts a finishing touch to her incongruities. But for whatever acquaintance is given with the idiosyncrasies of a shrewd and simple people, before an intrusive and progressive age has wiped out their local character, there is reason to be grateful to any writer.

Grimpat is not a name that is English in sound, though it figures effectively as an English village in the handful of short stories to which it gives a background and a common title. Grimpat lovers are, with few exceptions, modest folk, whose historian has happily known how to unfold the simple annals of the poor in plain and unaffected language. Let fortune treat them well or ill, or the course of true love run smooth or troubled, the how and the why of it are set down with the perfection of unpretending directness. Or if my lord or my lady chance to be drawn into the noiseless current of obscure events, as happens in the story called "Linnet's Lover," the same homely simplicity suffices to give them the desired air of reality. Lady Courtland is one of the gracefully sketched figures it is a pleasure to watch in the pages of fiction; while Lady Joanna, into whose startled ears the country-girl Daisy Wynn flings the name of "My cousin, Lord Glenheather," is another of the imaginary persons who, if they could be transferred to actual life, would, with all their faultiness, add largely to its attractions. Stories so void of sensationalism, and dealing so modestly with the romance of humble destinies, are, as a rule, the natural growth of an Old World, where the knowledge, religiously inculcated and cheerfully accepted of the limitations of lowly station, has given to character an outward and inward finish rarely seen in the New. They raise anew in the mind the long-mooted question whether all

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the blessings of uniformity to be enjoyed in a democratic world, where never a pretty girl need drop a curtsy to her betters, will ever serve so well the purposes of imagination as the piquancy of contrasts in social levels. Let this be as it will, these are tales that may act as a reminder to all whom it concerns that the way to avoid commonness, if not to achieve distinction in fiction, is never, in writing any more than in manner, to strain after effect.

GIDDINGS'S PRINCIPLES OF SOCIOLOGY.

The Principles of Sociology. By Franklin Henry Giddings. Macmillan Co. 1896.

THOSE who have perused what philosophers have heretofore offered the world under the title "sociology," must have been frequently tempted to repeat the question which Kant so often put concerning metaphysics: How is it any way possible? Whatever form of definition be adopted, it is evident that we have in some way and to some extent to deal with the sum total of knowledge. Nothing human can be excluded from the field. According to the French saying, man is born in society and there he remains. No such thing as an isolated human being can be found in all our experience, or can even be conceived. The necessity of being born involves some form of the institution of the family; and the existence of the family involves in embryo all the phenomena of human society. All our knowledge is therefore attained through a medium that inevitably colors it, and in a sense every human event is a sociological datum.

The author of this work supplies us with some instances of the failures of various writers in their attempts to grapple with so vast a theme. "No image has been too fantastic," he tells us, "no speculation too mystical, no belief too absurd, to enter into the description and philosophy of society." Comte's objective interpretation was "extremely crude." The subjective explanation has become "a tiresome endeavor to enumerate all the motives that actuate man in his varied relations and in the satisfaction of all his wants." Those who have identified social statics with an account of social structure, and social dynamics with an account of social function, have been guilty of "profound misconceptions," and have propagated "subtle and misleading errors." Some attempts to state the first principles of sociology have approximated to success, but they have failed to attain it. Nevertheless these essays have brought us gradually to the point where success is attainable. "Sociology must go right from this time forth, . . . because it has tried all possible ways of going wrong." The strait gate and the narrow path are at last before us.

What, then, is sociology in this purified and sublimated form? "It is a science that tries to conceive of society in its unity, and attempts to explain it in terms of cosmic cause and law." "It is the systematic description and explanation of society viewed as a whole. It is the general science of social phenomena." "It is an interpretation of human society in terms of natural causation." "It is an attempt to account for the origin, growth, structure, and activities of society by the operation of physical, vital, and psychical causes, working together in a process of evolution." "It insists, also, that one fundamental logic underlies the objective or physical, and the subjective or volitional, explanations of social phenomena." "A true sociology must combine the subjective and the objective interpretations." In order to accomplish this combination, we require some fundamental postulate, "which can be no other than this, namely: The original and elementary subjective fact in society is *the consciousness of kind.* By this term I mean a state of consciousness in which any being, whether low or high in the scale of life, recognizes another conscious being as of like kind with itself." And a society "is a naturally developing group of conscious beings, in which converse passes into definite relationships that, in the course of time, are wrought into a complex and enduring organization."

It cannot but be regarded as unfortunate that, in the definition of the sociological postulate, the vital word "kind" should be used to define itself. We have searched for some clear and precise statement of its meaning, but in vain. It is probable that in the author's mind it is generally synonymous with species; that the recognition of kind takes place when one cat or one man sees another. But species is a word not free from ambiguity, and we do not feel sure that we are justified in attributing any meaning to this postulate except the very general one of the perception of similarity among conscious beings. If we are correct, the science of sociology consists of the observation and classification of such perceptions, and the deduction of laws and principles therefrom. But it would seem to be necessary to add the impulses and actions associated with these perceptions, which practically turns us loose in the whole field of human activity. We must then, we suppose, abstract from this vast aggregate of phenomena such acts as are especially suggestive of the "consciousness of kind" and take them for our subject matter.

It is obvious that we must have further guidance before we embark on such a boundless ocean as this. The mere enumeration of what we may call social acts would be an endless labor. We may reduce it by appropriating the results of the other sciences, especially biology and psychology, to say nothing of the aid to be had from general history, from ethics, and from politics. These sciences, however, have for the most part found progress possible only by limiting their scope. They have been obliged, as a condition of advance, to confine their attention to certain comparatively narrow classes of phenomena. If now we reverse the process, and endeavor to generalize from them, what are we doing but going out of the door at which we entered? We learn that our postulate is true, and that one of the common features of all these sciences is the "consciousness of kind."

But are no other generalizations possible? They are, by the introduction of other postulates. Prof. Giddings lays it down that the sociologist has three main quests. He must discover the conditions that determine aggregation, the law that governs social choices, and the law that governs the natural selection and the survival of choices. This certainly promises better results. By the use of existing knowledge we are able to say that social aggregations depend on conditions of food supply; that pleasurable social relations are preferred; and that these preferences may be prejudicial or beneficial to particular societies. But here we are at once met by the shadow feared of all investigators, the plurality of causes. Prof. Giddings is not unaware of this. He admits that Mill's chapters on the logic of the moral sciences must be the foundation of sociological method; but we fear much of his own work rests on a different substructure. To attain the empirical generalizations without which sociology is impossible, he finds it necessary to assume what we cannot but regard as the true sociological postulate, that we may make "a preliminary elimination of possibly coöperating causes." Thus, if we wish to explain the prosperity of a country, we must not be hampered by Mill's logic. "Prosperity is the effect of a bewildering plurality of causes, but among them not half-a-dozen are commensurate with any great, sudden, or long-continued increase of material well-being. All others may be eliminated at the outset."

The opening of Pandora's box did not let loose a greater variety of mischiefs than follow from this proposition. Were it sound, science would be at the mercy of every sciolist. Upon this principle more fallacious arguments than can be counted have been constructed. It is the principle on which every half-educated legislator shapes his conception of public policy, and every fanatic defends his measures. It is at the bottom of the prohibition craze, the silver craze, the tariff craze, and the military craze. Grant any orator the liberty of eliminating such causes as he does not believe in, and his flights will soar far beyond all reason and experience. "What do we care for abroad?" shouted Stanley Matthews, and eliminated at a whiff all inconvenient and "incommensurate" arguments; and half the speeches in Congress are equally logical. It avails nothing to reply that the elimination must not be arbitrary. Who is to decide whether it is arbitrary or not? Unless we have a new set of canons of "elimination" we are altogether helpless. We are set afloat, without pilot, chart, or compass, and the severe methods of science give place to the freaks of human conceit.

If it be urged that without this process of elimination no sociology is possible, we shall not dispute it. But we are unable to accept results so obtained as science, and are therefore disqualified from criticising the conceptions of "sociality," "propriety," "institutionality," "ideality," and "conventionality," as corresponding to stages of historical evolution known as zoögenic, anthropogenic, ethnogenic, and demogenic association. Under these classifications Prof. Giddings has accumulated many facts of greater or less interest, and it would be ungracious to deny him the merits of patient industry and of careful elaboration. Many of the generalizations from history which he offers are true and suggestive. Many are the baldest platitudes, posing as oracular wisdom. But as to the future of the human race, we confess that it appears to us to be shrouded in as dense obscurity as it was before the appearance of this volume. We know something of what has taken place in the past, and if the conditions remain unchanged we may forecast what is to be. But we cannot forget the terrible warning presented by Mr. Spencer's example. Just as he had brought his system of sociology to perfection, and shown how the reign of justice and freedom must necessarily result from the evolution of the social organism, society took a perverse list towards socialism, and he was obliged to drop to the humiliating rôle of a Hebrew prophet cursing the chosen people for turning aside after Baalim and Ashtaroth. The task that sociologists set themselves is too great for their present equipment. Let them provide themselves with a *novum*

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organum adapted to the requirements of their stupendous problem before they offer us its solution.

Early Long Island: A Colonial Study. By Martha Bockee Flint. G. P. Putnam's Sons. 1896.

MOST of the local history of this country is written from such a purely antiquarian standpoint as to have interest only for the locality chronicled, but the author of the present work has written for a wider audience. Avoiding both the pitfalls of purely local concerns and dry genealogy, on the one side, and the temptation to pick out the exceptional in order to be picturesque and quaint (a now prevailing disease in a number of our "old-time" writers), Miss Flint clearly distinguishes the forces which went to make the history of Long Island. Her book is never dull—quite the reverse—and the trials and sacrifices, daily life, and relation to the world of the people stand out very clearly and correctly in the mind of the reader. Even without the long list of authorities, the work manifests the care with which it has been prepared.

The early contest between the Dutch and New Englanders, the resulting religious toleration, equalled only in Rhode Island, and the whaling and the smuggling which so much contributed to Long Island's material prosperity, are all well set forth. The political struggles, in which Stuyvesant complained that in elections "by the populace, each would vote for one of his own stamp—the thief for a thief, the rogue, the tippler, the smuggler, each for a brother in iniquity—that he might enjoy greater latitude for his own offences," bring home how little humanity has changed in the interval, however much conditions have varied. Perhaps even these are to the mass of mankind not so different, for as early as 1737 there were market-gardens on the island, and the lines along which most of the developments of the last hundred years have proceeded, even to the manors and country houses for New Yorkers, were already marked out.

The author, following other writers, believes that the Howes lost their opportunity, after the battle of Brooklyn, by neglecting to bring the British fleet into the East River and carry the American works by assault. This entirely overlooks the fact that, during the three days between the defeat and the retreat, the wind was adverse, and it was quite impossible to move a vessel. For the second point, the British had had a lesson in assaulting earthworks at Bunker's Hill, and at Brooklyn there were no trenches the work of a single night, but elaborate lines, the work of months. Had Howe's army only made the attempt, instead of adopting the more prudent course, the story of those few days would have been very different. During the whole war the Americans were never beaten when they were fighting behind breastworks, and Howe proved his good sense in nothing more than by not assaulting them at Brooklyn, at White Plains, and at White Marsh. Again, Miss Flint's account of the American treatment of the Tories under the famous "fifth clause" of the treaty is open to criticism. The English understood thoroughly that all the treaty bound the Americans to was to "recommend" to angry tigers that they be merciful to their prey, and the outburst in Parliament when that clause was read showed that they, as well as the Americans, understood that the Loyalists had been sacrificed in order to obtain peace. The conduct of the Whigs was merciless and outrageous, but it was no breach of the treaty.

An error into which the author has been led by Lossing is the ascribing of the lines from "M'Fingal" to Judge William Smith of New York, when they really belong to Rev. Dr. William Smith of Philadelphia. Minor errors are references to the Simstiere collection, for Simitiere, and to H. M. Murphy for H. C. Murphy.

Cyrus W. Field: His Life and Work [1819–1892]. Edited by Isabella Field Judson. Illustrated. Harpers. 1896.

MRS. JUDSON has succeeded in giving an account of her father which all who knew him will value, and which the public at large will find of considerable interest. His life was a strange blending of prose, romance, and tragedy. The story begins in one of the quietest New England villages in the year 1819. The father of Cyrus Field is the "dominie" of Stockbridge, wielding an authority, religious and secular, now already long obsolete. He offers up prayers for the sinful in church by name; he determines when the Sabbath begins and ends—he seems to have rather inclined to the theory that it lasted for one day and two evenings; he stops little boys who play marbles in the village street at improper times. He brings up a family of children with the rigidity of discipline befitting the town in which Edwards taught, but destined soon to vanish before the advancing spirit of laxity. There is something pathetic in the *res angustæ* of the parsonage, and something inspiring in the strict honesty of the New England Puritan village atmosphere. The little account which the boy sends back to his father from New York of the petty sum given him to get there was worth preserving; it is a glimpse behind the scenes which reflects the times. In that remote New England, people brought up their children to be scrupulous about small sums of money.

Cyrus begins life as an errand boy on $50 a year. It is not long before his restless energy enables him to accumulate a large enough sum of money to embark in business, and no sooner does he do this than he fails. Nothing daunted by a disaster for which he is not to blame, he settles with his creditors (they are all afterwards paid in full) and begins again. This time he is more successful, and he accumulates what, for the first half of the century, is a fortune. This success, however, merely fires his ambition, which must always have been boundless, and it is about this time that he first turns his attention to the project of a telegraphic cable between the old and the new worlds. To this scheme, which to the general public appeared at the time utterly chimerical, he devotes twelve years of his life, struggling unwearied through every sort of difficulty and disaster to the triumph which he seems to have been inspired to foresee, predict, and make his own. For it is not a triumph of scientific knowledge over popular ignorance (there does not appear to have been at the time any means of knowing whether his plan was feasible or not), but rather the unerring insight of a man possessed. To John Bright and other orators his success recalls that of Columbus—one had brought the two worlds into communication with each other; the other moors them side by side.

While engaged in this gigantic enterprise he again fails in business, and again he is able later to repay his creditors in full. His daughter, with natural pride in this unusual feat, prints some of the acknowledgments received by him. We fear that their tone will be, for the historian of our period, proof that Mr. Field's act was not an every-day tribute to integrity. In this part of his career, however, success is sure in the end to be his, whatever he undertakes. He not only wipes out his debts, but makes another fortune, and, moreover, by the time the cable is finally laid, has come to have an international reputation. He is as well known in London as in New York; his name he has made a household word throughout the world.

But this is not enough. Always driven forward by an enthusiasm and optimism which make him typical of his times and country, he is not capable of being content, and is determined to have all or nothing. Everything is embarked in a new venture, and again, while visions of colossal wealth float before his eyes, everything is lost. But this time is the last. Mr. Field is an old man, broken by domestic sorrows of a kind harder to bear than loss of money, and he cannot survive the shock. In closing the book the reader cannot but feel that the event is too recent to enable us to estimate with critical accuracy how Mr. Field's career will look to the generations to come; but no one who sympathizes with daring and ambition can read the story without being moved. The volume contains a valuable letter from Mr. Gladstone, hitherto unpublished, defending and explaining his attitude towards the United States during our civil war.

A History of Modern Banks of Issue. With an Account of the Economic Crises of the Present Century. By Charles A. Conant. G. P. Putnam's Sons. 1896.

THE principle adopted by Mr. Conant as his guide in this historical investigation is that "the currency of a commercial country should be regulated by commercial conditions and not by the whims of politicians." Stated in this way, we may admit that it is an "axiomatic truth"; but the statement is not a fortunate one. It puts Mr. Conant in the position of a sentimental opponent of the issue of currency by Government, whereas his book is conspicuously free from sentimental prejudice or emotional criticism. He lets the facts speak for themselves, and they speak loud enough. Their lesson is that the safest currency, so soon as metal is displaced by credit, is furnished by the private enterprise of banks subject to the ordinary laws of business liability, and that the interference of Government has almost without exception been prejudicial, and prejudicial in proportion to the extent of the interference. The most disastrous results have taken place when Government has issued its own notes as currency; and when it has limited itself to establishing or aiding banks, the least injurious results have followed when the banks have been most left to themselves.

We are so accustomed to the limited liability of the stockholders of commercial corporations that we are apt to forget that the common law knows nothing of this principle. Those who associate themselves in any business enterprise, unless protected by statute, are partners, and their whole estates are subject to the claims of their creditors. Where this principle has been applied to banks, as in Scotland, the security of noteholders has been practically complete. It has often been found possible to depart from it with a considerable degree of safety, and in practice the partnership principle in banking is obsolete; but un-

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less the laws under which banking corporations are formed are extremely conservative, there is sure to be trouble. Mr. Conant's book is a commentary on such legislation, and it is deserving of high praise. He has brought together the principal facts concerning banks of issue throughout the commercial world—facts in many cases inaccessible to American readers—and has produced an encyclopædia of the subject, brought down to the present year. It contains much matter that is outside the strict limits of bank currency, but the activity of government has been so incessant and so potent that it would have been impossible to ignore it.

The history of banking in this country and in the United Kingdom may be presumed to be familiar to most readers, and Mr. Conant's account of it calls for no particular comment. His description of the banking experience of the kingdom of Italy, especially in recent years, might well have been more detailed. The lessons to be derived from it are precisely those which the American people must somehow learn, and would do well to learn from the experience of other nations. Concerning the Bank of France it is perhaps worth while to note that its charter expires in 1897, and, with the present constitution of the French legislature, it is appalling to think of what may be proposed when that period is reached. We can only say that concerning the banks of Germany, Austria-Hungary, and Russia Mr. Conant writes in an interesting way, and that he furnishes but meagre information concerning the banks of Latin America, Africa, and the Orient. The chapters on commercial crises are of course germane, but it would perhaps have been better to give the space to more particular details of some of the institutions concerning which we know little. The concluding chapter, on the advantages of a banking currency, is excellent, and the essence of the matter is well expressed in an observation of Lord Sydenham's, that "nothing is easier to conduct than the business of a banker, if he will only learn the difference between a mortgage and a bill of exchange." Altogether Mr. Conant's book is to be heartily recommended.

Lectures on the Darwinian Theory. Delivered by the late Arthur Milnes Marshall, M.A., M.D., etc. Edited by C. F. Marshall, M.D., etc. London: D. Nutt; New York: Macmillan & Co. Imp. 8vo, pp. 236, illustrated.

PROF. MARSHALL says the best that has been said for the Darwinian theory. His exposition is better adapted to general readers than that of more prominent authorities. He has a charming style; his lectures are models of lucidity and compactness. That he is a partisan is evident, but not disagreeably so. There is a familiar appearance in many of his statements, and perhaps we cannot do better than bring together such a number of them as will define the theory as he saw it. "The theory of natural selection teaches that there are in nature causes which act in much the same way as man acts when selecting artificially for breeding purposes; causes which must lead to structural modifications." (Man's principal function in this connection may rather be likened to isolation, in that he provides opportunity for the action of evolutionary factors.) "Natural selection is a slow process, depending on the gradual accumulation of small variations for the acquirement of which we have no actual standard of time"; it "accounts for any amount of modification in an organ when once established, modification in any direction, either of increase or decrease, but does not offer any explanation of the first appearance of such an organ"; it "can only act on an organ after it has already attained sufficient size to be of practical importance and utility"; it acts "by the continuous preservation of a series of very minute variations." (Hence, all variations have equal chances of preservation until one or more is made use of. "Sports" are neglected here; and a tendency to sport and to accumulate such variation is outside the limits.) "The vast majority of animals and plants that come into the world are doomed to die early"; "the more favored ones will not only survive, but will tend to hand down to their descendants their special advantages"; "the struggle for existence results in the survival of the fittest"; the theory "does not say that the ideally best survive, but those most in harmony with their surroundings for the time being"; "the real struggle is between the most closely allied and therefore competing forms." (The inference that the early death of the vast majority is caused by closely allied forms is not warranted.) "Natural selection does not of necessity involve progression or change of any kind, and is quite consistent with a stationary condition, provided that the environment, or at least all the features of the environment affecting them [the persistent types], remains unchanged." In mimicry, "at first there is more or less accidental resemblance"; "the mode of acquisition of mimicry is by the gradual action of natural selection, and must have been accidental in the first instance"; "the colors of animals and plants are no mere accidents, and are not created for our special benefit, but are directly useful to their possessors and have been acquired because they are useful." "Every species is for itself and for itself alone"; "natural selection acts for the good of the species"; "it will tend to preserve the instinct because it is *advantageous to the species, although of no benefit to the individual.*"

The following extracts, for comparison, are from Darwin: "Although natural selection can act only through and for the good of each being, yet characters and structures which we are apt to consider as of very trifling importance may thus be acted upon." "Natural selection acts only by the preservation and accumulation of small inherited modifications, each profitable to the preserved being." "As the individuals of the same species come in all respects into the closest competition with each other, the struggle will generally be most severe between them." The subjoined quotation, also from Darwin, is of a kind which our author considers to be most in need of proof: "There can be little doubt that the tendency to vary in the same manner has often been so strong that all the individuals of the same species have been similarly modified without the aid of any form of selection."

A eulogistic notice of Darwin's life and works concludes the series of lectures.

Notes on the Text of the Book of Genesis. With an appendix. By G. J. Spurrell, M.A. Second edition, revised and corrected. Oxford: Clarendon Press; New York: Macmillan. 1896.

THESE "Notes," the first edition of which appeared in 1887, are, as is frankly professed in the preface, substantially a compilation from the commentaries of Tuch, Delitzsch, and Dillmann, and are intended for the use of beginners who take Genesis for a first reading-book in Hebrew. For the benefit of this class, the forms of words and the structure of sentences are very minutely explained, with superabundant references to various grammars. The appearance of a second edition proves that the book has not been found useless; but it is very ill adapted to its primary purpose. The author's "beginners" are supposed not to know their paradigms or the rudiments of syntax, and at the same time to be able to profit by extracts from the Targums and the Syriac and Arabic versions in the original, and to digest etymologies in all the Semitic languages and alphabets. Much space and time is wasted on the etymology of rare or foreign words and of proper names. Thus, of the word "cherub" no less than eight explanations are quoted, six of which the author himself dismisses as "precarious and improbable," the other two being unproved; the only thing reasonably certain is that it is a foreign word. Much of this matter, like the six etymologies of "cherub" exhumed from Gesenius's 'Thesaurus,' is sheer rubbish, and hardly any of it is of any conceivable use to the beginner.

The second edition is enlarged by an Introduction on the sources and composition of Genesis derived chiefly from Holzinger and Driver, which takes the place of the very inadequate treatment of the same subject in Appendix I. of the former edition. Some additions have been made to the text and some errors corrected; but it can hardly be said that the work has been thoroughly revised and brought up to date. We miss references to many important recent discussions of points treated in the notes.

BOOKS OF THE WEEK.

Advertising in New England: A Complete Handbook for 1896-7. Boston: C. H. Guild & Co.
Alden, Mrs. G. R. Making Fate. Boston: Lothrop Publishing Co. $1.50.
Andrews, G. A. Composite Geometrical Figures. Boston: Ginn & Co. 55c.
Bardeen, C. W. A Manual of Common School Law. Syracuse, N. Y.: C. W. Bardeen. $1.
Barker, Wharton. Bimetallism. Philadelphia: Barker Publishing Co. 50c.
Benson, E. F. The Babe, B. A. Putnams. $1.
Bétis, Victor, and Swan, Howard. The Facts of Life: Part I. Scribners. 80c.
Blossom, H. M., jr. Checkers: A Hard-Luck Story. Chicago: H. S. Stone & Co. $1.25.
Boothby, Guy. Dr. Nikola. Appletons.
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